



Class 77 1223

Book · W7





260

# A GRAMMAR

OF THE

# MODERN IRISH LANGUAGE,

DESIGNED FOR THE USE OF

THE CLASSES IN THE UNIVERSITY OF DUBLIN.

118

# CHARLES HENRY HAMILTON WRIGHT, M.A.,

OF TRINITY COLLEGE, DUBLIN;

EDITOR OF "THE BOOK OF GENESIS IN HEBREW, WITH A CRITICALLY REVISED TEXT,
VARIOUS READINGS, AND GRAMMATICAL AND CRITICAL NOTES," &c.;
ASST. CURATE OF MIDDLETON TYAS, YORKSHIRE.

1025

Second Edition-Revised and Enlarged.



## WILLIAMS AND NORGATE,

14, HENRIETTA-STREET, COVENT GARDEN, LONDON;
20, SOUTH FREDERICK-STREET, EDINBURGH.

DUBLIN: HODGES, SMITH, AND CO.

1860.

18-29262

PB1223

DUBLIN: PRINTED BY ALEX. THOM & SONS, 87 & 88, ABBEY-STREET.

# PREFACE.

THE little work of which the second edition is now issued from the press is a short introduction to the study of the Irish language, and is intended mainly to assist the student desirous of obtaining an acquaintance with the language as it is spoken in many parts of our island; while to those who desire to enter more deeply into the study of Celtic, it may, perhaps, serve as a starting point at which to commence their investigations.

Similar elementary grammars of the Irish language, varying in value and interest, have been long before the public, the best of which are those of Dr. Neilson, and Mr. Connellan, the present Professor of Irish in Queen's College, Cork. These have been made use of in the drawing up of the present work. The former had been long in use as a class-book in the University of Dublin; but as it was confessedly very inaccurate and provincial in the character of the Irish which it exhibited, I was asked by my friend, Rev. D. Foley, D.D., Professor of Irish in the University of Dublin, to draw up a short grammar which would be free from errors of that kind. This work having received the kind revision of Dr. Foley, was published with a recommendatory preface by him in 1855, the Board of Trinity College, Dublin, having very liberally made a

grant sufficient to defray almost the entire expenses of its publication. Since its publication it has, at the instance of Professor Foley, been made a class-book in the Düblin university.

It is well known by philologists that the great standard grammar of Modern Irish is by Dr. O'Donovan, one of the foremost representatives of native Celtic learning. This much praised work was published in 1845, and it is on it that I have mainly relied both in my first, and now again in my second edition. Much progress, however, has been made since that time in Celtic studies, and great results may be looked for when the second edition of Dr. O'Donovan's grammar appears, as it is to be hoped that he will combine in it the results of Zeuss and his school, and of his own researches in the study of the Brehon Laws.

Since the first publication of this little work the greatest change has come over our Celtic philology. That change has been caused by the appearance of the Grammatica Celtica of Zeuss. That great work which marks a new era of Celtic philology was published in 1853. In it Zeuss solved the Celtic problem, viz.: the question, in what relationship the Irish, Welsh, and old Gaulish people stand both to each other and to the other nations. Numerous have been the works published on this question during the two last centuries. And yet we must say, with regret, that as to their value, it is almost none. In no department can more scientific errors be pointed out. The Continental scholars never mastered the Celtic languages; the native scholars lacked, almost without exception, common sense, and often common honesty. No Irish scholar was conscientious enough to learn Welsh, no Welsh scholar to learn Irish; but all were ready enough to compare their languages with Phœnician, Persian, Etruscan, Egyptian, of which again they knew, in reality, next to nothing. Justice compels us to mention one remarkable exception, the great Welsh scholar, Edward Lhwyd, of whom it may be said that he lived 150 years before his time; but, unable to follow him, the native school had sunk into chaotic and childish etymological dreams. The Celtic problem appeared to be hopeless, and became distasteful to sober minds. Some twenty years ago, however, the influence of the new science of Comparative Philology began to be felt. Pritchard tried to apply it to Celtic with some success. The Continental linguists of Bopp's school, Bopp himself, Diefenbach, Pictet, and others, although tending in the right direction, failed to prove the truth. Zeuss at last succeeded by combining with an intellect of rare power a devotion to the subject which amounted, one may say, to a sacrifice of his life. And even this might not have been enough if he had not possessed what no one possessed before him, viz., the really oldest monument of both the Irish and the Welsh dialects. Those of the Irish he found in the MSS. of St. Gall, Milan, Würtzburg, and Carlsruhe; the Welsh, in Oxford.

Dr. O'Donovan, in a paper on Zeuss in the Ulster Journal of Archæology for 1859, quotes the following remarks by Dr. Siegfried in explanation of this: "Zeuss, in the course of his historical researches, had become more familiar with the great libraries of Europe than most men; and he knew, what the scholars of Ireland and Britain were not aware of, that the oldest Irish

MSS. existing are not to be found either in the library of Trinity College, Dublin, or of the Royal Irish Academy, nor yet in Oxford or London; but that they had been hidden for hundreds of years in the Ambrosian Library at Milan, in the old monastery of St. Gall, in Switzerland, and in some other Continental places. Most people know how this occurred. Ireland was at one period famous for its learning, and called by our ancestors the Island of Saints, and Irish missionaries were then the missionary teachers of the Continent. In the numerous monasteries founded by them, such as St. Gall and Bobbio, learned men found a refuge. The MSS. Zeuss found in the German and Italian libraries are the results of their pious labours. These, however, are not original works, they are mere copies of parts of the Scriptures, and of the classics. In transcribing these, the monks, for the assistance of their own memories, and for the benefit of younger scholars, used to write between the lines the literal Irish translation of difficult words and phrases. These are the famous glosses of St. Gall and of Milan. Zeuss saw their value, and spared no labour nor expense in copying them out with his own hand. Possessing them he soon learned more of the really oldest forms and grammar of the Irish language than any scholar had known before him. There are archaisms preserved in those glosses which were never found in the MSS. preserved in Great Britain or in Ireland"

Previous to the appearance of Zeuss' work, attempts could be made with impunity to connect Welsh and Irish with Hebrew and Phœnician, or with Etruscan, Egyptian, and Basque. At the same time Welsh scho-

lars on the one hand, and Irish scholars on the other, were able to deny the connexion of the two languages. An end has been now put to all such vain attempts and assertions. It is now proved (1) that on no grounds of rational or scientific etymology can the Celtic be compared with the Shemitic or other allophylan families, but that it is of a purely Japhetic, i.e., Indo-European, origin; and (2) that the Irish and Welsh were originally the same language. On this general result of the researches of Zeuss we quote the following statement of Dr. O'Donovan, in the article already alluded to, which is of peculiar value as showing that the results of the German scholar are adopted by the highest native authority on Celtic matters. O'Donovan states that the Grammatica Celtica has proved:—

- "1. That the Irish and Welsh languages are one in their origin; that their divergence, so far from being primeval, began only a few centuries before the Roman period; that the difference between them was very small when Cæsar landed in Britain—so small, that an old Hibernian, most likely, was still understood there; and that both nations, Irish and British, were identical with the Celtæ of the Continent—namely, those of Gaul, Spain, Lombardy, and the Alpine countries;—this is, in fact, asserting the internal unity of the Celtic family.
- "2. That this Celtic tongue is, in the full and complete sense of the term, one of the great Indo-European branches of human speech. This, which it had been impossible for the great linguist Bopp to prove, is fully demonstrated by Zeuss.

"The consequence of these two facts is, that there

must now be an end to all attempts at comparing either Hebrew, Phœnician, Egyptian, Basque, or any other language which is not Indo-European, with any dialect of Celtic. The consequence further is, that as far as language gives evidence, we must consider the inhabitants of these islands strictly as brethren of those other five European families constituting that vast and ancient pastoral race who spread themselves in their nomadic migrations till, in the west, they occupied Gaul, and crossed over to Britain and to Ireland, the last boundary of the old world. It follows, likewise, that to the Celtic family we must allow the full Japhetic heir-loom, not only of the grandly organized original language, but of all that it attests of early culture in every respect, the first germs of a mythological Pantheon included.

"Of a heterogeneous mixture, Zeuss has found no trace either in the Welsh or the Irish; therefore, what mediæval tradition relates of such mixture is now a problem which must find solution from a different source."

The Celtic family consists of two living branches, the British and the Irish; the first comprising the Welsh, Cornish, and the Armoric; the second comprising the Irish or Gaelic, the Scotch Gaelic, and the Manx.

The antique Celtic of Gaul is unhappily lost. Many proper names, and a few words reported by the old classic writers, were long all we possessed of it. Grimm pointed out some curious charms reported by Marcellus, the physician of Theodosius the Great. During the last few years about ten really ancient Gaulish inscriptions have been discovered in France. Unfortunately

they are all very short. M. Pictet, Baron Roget de Belloguet, Mr. Whitley Stokes, and Dr. Siegfried, have attempted to interpret them.

With respect to the Irish language, we know it now in three stages: 1, Old Irish up to A.D. 1000. Of this Zeuss discovered the most ancient relics in the glosses of St. Gall, &c., of which he has printed a large portion in his Grammatica Celtica; and Trinity College, Dublin, possesses, since last year, by the munificence of the Irish Primate, one parchment book of the same age, namely, the very valuable book of Armagh, now in preparation for publication by Rev. Dr. Reeves; 2, Middle Irish, from A.D. 1000–1400, is represented by the Brehon Laws, many printed works, and the vast MS. treasures at home; and 3, of the Modern Irish, we have the later literature and the spoken language of the present day.

The peculiar features of the language which, apparently, made it quite sui generis, and tended to open the door for many unfounded theories, have been at length historically traced, and their natural origin discovered. The absence of the neuter gender is shown to be merely a modern loss, as the language of the St. Gall glosses is nearly as full of neuters as Latin or Greek; the aspirations so frequent in later times are perceived to have arisen from the influence of vowels, and the curious phenomenon designated by the name of eclipsis, is now ascertained to have owed its origin to the influence of a final n (See § 7).

The Continental school of the followers of Zeuss is now working pari passu with the Dublin school of native Irish scholars, headed by the well known names

of Dr. Petrie, Dr. O'Donovan, Mr. Eugene Curry, Rev. Dr. Todd, S.F.T.C.D., and Mr. Stokes.

Hermann Ebel has shown the etymological identity of the Irish cases of declension yet extant with those of the Indo-European languages; and M. Pictet and Herr Glück have completed Zeuss' researches on the Celtic names. A critical journal has been established at Berlin for the comparative study of Celtic and its sister languages (Kuhn and Schleicher's "Beiträge").

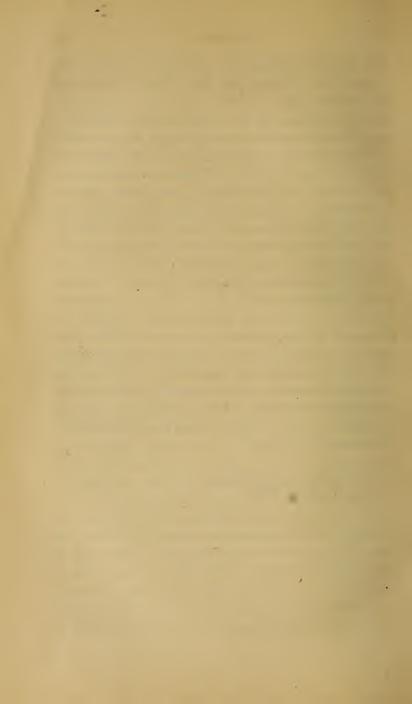
Celtic rational philology is only in its infancy. The critical Dublin school, the leading names of which have been already mentioned, have had so much employment in the mere careful editing of texts that they have been unable, hitherto, to digest the results of their labours. By Zeuss they have been now put into natural connexion with the other labourers in the wide field of Indo-European philology. Celtic benefits by all the light that has been thrown upon general philological studies by Grimm, Bopp, &c.; while it is itself nowappreciated as being essential to a complete understanding of the languages and the origin of the sister nations, viz., German, Italic, Greek, and their relations. But much yet remains to be done; the full materials for working have not yet been obtained; a Thesaurus of Irish being absolutely required to complete the tools necessary for working in the great Celtic mine. the grand and primary desideratum of Irish learning. We trust that, when the labour of editing the Brehon Laws is concluded, Mr. Curry and Dr. O'Donovan will supply this great want, and thereby enable the Continental scholars successfully to pursue their studies.

Since the issue of the first edition of this work, a

work of a similar nature has appeared—namely, "The College Irish Grammar," by Rev. Ulick J. Bourke, of Maynooth College. Dublin, 1856. In reply to Mr. Bourke's strictures on my omission of the subjunctive mood in this Grammar, I merely remark, that we might as well insert in the number of cases of the Irish noun the Sanskrit instrumental and locative, because the ideas expressed by those cases can be conveyed by a use of the Irish cases; as insert among the moods of the Irish verb the subjunctive, simply because the indicative in Irish is frequently used in a subjunctive signification.

In conclusion, I beg to return my best thanks to my friend Dr. Rudolf Th. Siegfried, Professor of Sanskrit in the University of Dublin, for the kind assistance that he has afforded me in my attempt to bring this little work up to the present stand-point of Celtic investigation. The Rev. Professor Foley has also kindly given the work the benefit of his revision; and I humbly trust that this second edition may be found useful in promoting a knowledge of the vernacular Irish, and, at the same time, not wholly undeserving the attention of the general philologer.

MIDDLETON TYAS, YORKSHIRE, July 26, 1860.



# CONTENTS.

70										]	Page
PREFACE,	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	iii
		PART	I0	RTHO	GRAI	рну.					
CHAPTER I.	§ 1	The A	Alphab	et,							1
	§ 2.	Vowe	ls and	Rule	ςαοί	le co	αοί,	7c.,			2
	§ 3.	Dipht	hongs,		•	•	•				2
	§ 4.	Triph	thongs	, -				•			3
	§ 5	Contr	actions	,						•	4
CHAPTER II.	Mut	ations o	f Cons	onant	S.						
		Aspira									4
	-	Eclips									5
	·	D	_ TT	T							
Or a person T	6 0		T II.—			GY.					C
CHAPTER I.	§ 8.	The A	erticie,	•	•	•	•	•	•	9	6
CHAPTER II.	.—The	Noun.									
	§ 9.	The N	Toun in	gene	ral,						7
	§ 10	First	Declen	sion,							8
	§ 11	Secon	d Decl	ensio	ı,		•		•		9
	§ 12.	Third	Decle	nsion,		•			•		10
	§ 13	Fourt	h Decl	ensio	1,		•	•			11
	§ 14	Fifth	Declen	sion,							11
	§ 15	Irregu	ılar No	ouns,		•					12
CHAPTER II	I.—Th	e Adjec	tive.								
		The A		ve in	gene	ral,					13
		The E									14
	-	. Secon									14
	§ 19	Third	Decler	nsion,							14
	§ 20	. Fourt	h Decl	ension	1,						15
	§ 21	Adjec	tives d	ecline	ed wi	th N	oun	s, .			15
		. The I									16
		. Irregu									17
		The N									18

CHAPTER IV	V.—The Pronoun.						Page
	§ 25. The Pronoun in	general,					19
	§ 26. Personal Pronoun						19
	§ 27. The Personal Pro	onouns wi	th P	repos	itions,		21
	§ 28. Possessive Prono						24
	§ 29. Relative Pronoun	ıs, .	. 1	/.			25
	§ 30. Interrogative Pro	onouns,					25
	§ 31. Demonstrative P	ronouns,					25
	§ 32. Indefinite Pronou	ıns, .					26
CHAPTER V.	_The Verb.						
	§ 33. Of the Verb in ge	eneral,					26
	§ 34. Formation of Mo	ods and I	Cense	s,			28
	§ 35. Aspirations and I	Eclipses,					31
	§ 36. The Regular Ver	b, .					32
	§ 37. Irregular Verbs,						34
	§ 38. The Substantive	Verb, bi,	to be	,			34
	§ 39. Obaip, to say,		••	•.			36
	§ 40. Deip, to bear,	•					38
	§ 41. Črom, to see,						39
	§ 42. Clum, to hear,		٠.				41
	§ 43. Oéan, to do,		•			e	41
	$\S$ 44. $\Upsilon\alpha\dot{\Xi}$ , to find, .					٥	43
	§ 45. Iním, to do,				•		45
	§ 46. 1t, to eat, .		•				46
	§ 47. Riż, to reach,		•	•	•	•	46
	§ 48. Tabain, to give,			٠	•	•	47
	§ 49. Tap, to come,		-	•	•	•	48
	§ 50. Téro or té, to go,		•	•	•	•	50
	§ 51. Defective Verbs,				•	•	51
CHAPTER V							
	§ 52. Adverbs, .					•	51
	§ 53. Prepositions,	• ()•			•	•	52
	§ 54. Conjunctions,			•	•	•	53
	§ 55. Interjections,					•	53

#### CONTENTS.

			Part I	II.—S	SYNTA	.X.				Ι	Page
CHAPTER	I.	§ 56.	The Articl	.e <b>,</b>							54
			The Noun,								
CHAPTER	II.	The 2	Adjective.								
		§ 58.	Adjectives	in ge	neral,						55
		§ 59.	Numerals,		•		•	•		•	56
CHAPTER	III	_The	Pronoun.								
			Personal P	ronou	ıns,						57
			Possessive								
			Relative ar								
			Demonstra								
CHAPTER	IV.	§ 64.	The Verb,				•	•		•	58
CHAPTER	v	-Parti	cles.								
		§ 65.	Adverbs,								60
			Preposition								
		§ 67.	Conjunction	ns an	d Inte	erject	ions,	•	•	•	60



# IRISH GRAMMAR.

# PART I. ORTHOGRAPHY.

#### CHAPTER I.

# $\S 1.$ —The Alphabet.

THE ordinary Irish Alphabet consists of eighteen letters: they are—

		5001121	Additional money
$\alpha$	α	1. Long, as $a$ in ball	bán, white.
		2. Short, as $a$ in what	ταη, come.
		3. Obscure, as a in negative	Gompa, with me.
b	<b>b</b>	As in English	bean, a woman.
C	С	1. Before a slender vowel, as k in king	ciall, sense.
		2. Before a broad vowel, as c in call	cat, a battle.
TO	О	1. Somewhat thick, as the English th in	,
Ŭ		thou	σάn, a poem.
		2. Before a slender vowel, somewhat as	· · · · · · ·
		d in guardian	O <sub>1</sub> α, God.
е	е	Long, as ay in hay	ré, six.
	F	As in English	
25	5	1. Before a slender vowel, as g in get	zean, love.
C	O	2. Before a broad vowel, as g in gone	
h	ħ	As in English	<b>8</b> ,
1	1	1. Long, as i in marine	mín, mild.
		2. Short, as $i$ in $fin$	7
l	l		mil, honey.
		2. Somewhat as l in valiant	buille, a blow.
m	m	As in English	mé, I.
	n	As in English	ní, not.
0	0	1. Long, as oa in coal	
		2. Short, as $u$ in $bulk$	olc, evil.
10	10	As in English	pobal, a congregation.
R		1. Broad, as $r$ in $raw$	nαnn, a part.
	•	2. Slender, somewhat like the second $r$	
		in carrion	bein, bring.
8	r	1. Before a slender vowel, as sh in shield.	rinn, we.
		2. Before a broad vowel, as s in son	ronar, happiness.
て	T	1. Rather thick, corresponding with the	
		broad o	tanti, a bull
		2. As $t$ in bestial	τιξεαρηα, a lord.
u	u	2. As t in bestial	cúl, the back part.
		2. Short, as u in put	bun, the bottom.

It must be borne in mind that all the attempts to illustrate the Irish sounds by English are only approximations; the true sound must be learnt by intercourse with those who speak the language. Cto is pronounced in the West as oo, as peacaro, sin. In other places it is pronounced as a in negative in nouns and infinitives, while in 3rd sing. past passive as  $\alpha > 0$  and  $\alpha < 0$ .

### § 2.—Vowels; and Rule Caol le caol, 7c.

CC, o, and u, are called broad vowels; and e and 1 slender. The most general rule of the Irish language is that called caol le caol azur leatan le leatan, "a slender with a slender, and a broad with a broad;" which is, that the vowel preceding a consonant, or combination of consonants, and that which follows it, must be of the same class; sc. both broad, or both slender: e. g. Nom. 750165, Gen. 7501615e, not 750165e. Nom. ριζεασόιρ; Gen. ριζεασόρα, not ριζεασόιρα; mot, motam; buat, buateap, buataö. The reason of this rule is, that in Irish the two classes of vowels have a decided influence on the pronunciation of the consonants in immediate contact with them; a, o, u, giving them a broad sound, and e and 1 a slender. As this influence on the consonant is exercised both by the preceding as well as the following vowel, the pronunciation would be rendered uncertain if the two vowels were not of the same kind. This delicacy of the organs of speech, though partly known elsewhere, has not been carried out to the same extent by any of the Indo-European languages, nor was it fully developed in the older shape of the Celtic itself, as Welsh does not partake of it. This rule has caused a rather cumbrous orthography, as a large number of vowels are now written for the mere purpose of insuring either the broad or slender pronunciation of the consonants, and these vowels which in reality have no sound, are distinguished in no way from those vowels which are sounded. This creates a difficulty in reading correctly Irish words. If every one of these silent vowels were marked, for instance, with a point, it would be of great assistance to the reader. Such an innovation, however, we cannot undertake to introduce.

#### § 3.—Diphthongs.

There are in Irish thirteen diphthongs, which are: αe, αο, αι, eα, eι, eo, eu, ια, ιο, ιυ, οι, υα, υι. Ce, αο, eu, eo, ια,

10, and uα, are generally long, the remaining are sometimes long and sometimes short. The diphthongs and triphthongs in Irish frequently are not real, but owe their rise to the operation of the rule cαολ te cαολ, 7c., e. g., αιηξεαλ, an angel, &c.

Those diphthongs which have their first vowel long are generally pronounced like dissyllables; as cam, I am. The following is a Table of the diphthongs and their pronunciation:—

#### A.—Invariable Diphthongs.

αe like	ai in pain.		lae, of a day
αο "	ay " mayor.		αon, one.
eu "	a "fare.		zeun, sharp.
	ea ,, clear.		ciall, sense.
ua som	ewhat like oe in	doer.	 ruan, cold.

#### B.—Variable Diphthongs.

					_	
at long,	like	awi	in	drawing.		τάιm, I am.
- short,	"	$\alpha$	"	rang.		rail, a beam.
,,	"	i	"	irregular.	• 4	ίαγαιη, a light.
eα long,	22	a	"	bane.		oéαn, do.
short,	"	ea	,,	heart.		ceape, just.
er long,	22	ei	22	reign.		 réin, self.
-short,	22	i	22	fir		zein, fat.
eo long,	22	yeo	22	yeoman.		reól, a sail.
- short,	22	u	22	dusk.		beoc, a drink.
10 long,	22	ee	22	queen.		rion, wine.
- short,	"	i		bliss.		rιογ, knowledge.
iu long,	"	ew		few		riú, worthy.
- short,	"	u		put		riuc, boil.
o1 long,	77	0	• • •	more.		cóin, just.
<b>—</b> "	"	i		tile		coill, a wood.
- short,	22	ui		quill.		com, a crime.
— "	"	u		crutch.		07.
ui long,	"	ui		fruit.		, ,
-short,	77	ui		quill.		ruit, blood.
,	77		11	1		<b>F0</b> , <b>3</b> 0

et short is pronounced in Munster like e in sell. 111 is pronounced like o in done, in Connaught, &c.

It must be borne in mind that the English sounds are approximations.

An accent is placed over vowels when they are long, as bάγ, death. Also over the variable diphthongs when long.

#### § 4.—Triphthongs.

The following five triphthongs are used in the Irish language, and are always long:—

							mαοιη, treasure.
e01	"	yeo	"	yeoman,	with i	after	reoil, flesh.
1α1	77	eei	"	seeing			$U(\alpha)$ , a physician.
				viewing.			ciuin, gentle.
uα	nea	rly l	lik	e $u$ in $ass$	sured.		cuanto, a visit.

#### § 5.—Contractions.

The following contractions are frequently used in printed books:—

7 αξυγ.	<u>ξ</u> 5αn.	.1. eατό on, viz.
4 αρ.	g eα.	7c etc.
4 αιμ.	₩ u1.	β p1.
α an.	n nn.	յր րր.
<del>ξ</del> 50, 5αn.	Ţαċτ.	

#### CHAPTER II.

#### MUTATIONS OF CONSONANTS.

§ 6.—Aspiration, &c.

b, c,  $\sigma$ ,  $\Gamma$ , are called mutable consonants, because by aspiration or eclipsis they either entirely lose or change their sound.

t, n, p are called immutable consonants, because they are

incapable of aspiration or eclipsis.

As the mutable consonants have very different sounds when aspirated, it seems proper to give them here, with their variety of pronunciation:—

b in the beginning or end of a word sounds like v; as, mo bale, my village; γιb, you. In the middle of a word between broad vowels it is generally sounded like w; as, a teatween broad vowels it is generally sounded like w; as, a teatween broad vowels it is generally sounded like w; as, a teatween broad vowels it is generally sounded like w; as, a teatween broad vowels it is generally sounded like w; as, and the sounded like w is a second continuous con

ban, his book.

c before and after a broad vowel is pronounced like the Greek  $\chi$ , or as gh in lough, as, mo ἀαρα, my friend; loċ, a lake; but if it precede or follow a slender vowel it receives a less guttural sound, as, ἀτόιπ, I see. The same diversity of sound prevails with regard to the German aspirate ch, ach being broad, ich, slender.

1.  $\dot{\sigma}$  and  $\dot{\sigma}$  sound like y in connexion with the slender vowels e and 1, but with a slight guttural sound; as,  $\alpha \dot{\sigma}$  ennear

muin, his birth.

2.  $\dot{\sigma}$  and  $\dot{\tau}$  before and after a broad vowel have a strong gut-

tural sound; as, mo Śuċ, my voice. This sound does not occur in English, and must be learned by intercourse with natives.

r is not sounded at all; as, an rip, pronounced as, an ip,

of the man.

m is pronounced like b.

 $\dot{p}$  is pronounced like Ph in Philip; as,  $\alpha$   $\dot{p}$ αι $\gamma$ , his suffering.  $\dot{r}$  and  $\dot{\tau}$  are pronounced like h alone; as, mo  $\dot{\gamma}$ οία $\gamma$ , my

comfort; a teanza, his tongue.

i, n, and p alone admit of being doubled in the middle or end of words; as, ounn, to us. of and in the middle of words are pronounced like it, and on like nn; as, coolao, sleep; cearna, the same.

#### § 7.—Eclipsis.

This term has been invented by Irish grammarians to denote one class of those alterations by which the initial letters of words are affected under certain conditions, as we shall see below. The term is taken from the peculiar orthographical contrivance, viz., as some of the alterations are so considerable that they would greatly disguise the word to the eye, the original letter, although silent, was allowed to remain in writing while the altered sound, which in reality is alone to be pronounced, was placed before it: the second letter is then, as the phrase is, eclipsed by the first. Hence arise the following cases:—

b is eclipsed by m; as, an m-baile, our town.

c ,, ξ; as, άη ξ-ceαρτ, our right.
τ as, άη η-Οια, our God; άη ηξεαράη, our complaint.
τ ,, ξ; as, αη β-γιιδ τι, art thou?

p ,, b; as, αn b-ruil τu, art thou?
p ,, b; as, άη bpéin, our punishment.
γ ,, τ; as, αn τ-γλας, the rod. Vid. § 8.
τ ,, ο; as, άη ν-τeine, our fire.

These are pronounced as, an maile, &c.

m suffers no eclipsis.

n can scarcely be said to eclipse 5, but rather to coalesce

with it; the pronunciation being like ng in singing.

Instead of the above method, in older orthography the initial letter is *doubled* to indicate the eclipse; as, cc, cc, &c., instead of 5c, oc; thus, a cclann, their children, for a 5-clann.

The origin of the eclipsis is now well understood: it originally took place only after certain words, and was in every case owing to an n, in which these words ended in the earlier period of the language. Vid. §§ 8, 24, 28, 35.

# PART II. ETYMOLOGY.

#### CHAPTER I.

§ 8.—The Article.

The article  $\alpha n$ , the, is inflected thus: Singular. Nom.  $\alpha n$ ; gen. masc.  $\alpha n$ , gen. fem.  $n\alpha$ ; Plural.  $n\alpha$ . The dative is formed by  $\alpha n$ , with a preposition. After a preposition ending in a vowel the  $\alpha$  of the article is dropped, as  $\sigma o'n$   $\alpha \dot{\sigma} \alpha \eta n$ , incorrectly written  $\sigma on$   $\alpha \dot{\sigma} \alpha \eta n$ , to the father.

The form note (Zeuss, p. 238,) was anciently used in the

dat. plural, but is not to be met with in modern Irish.

Certain prepositions when followed by the article, assume an  $\gamma$ , e. g. le with, lepan, with the; the through, they are an independent than after the. This fact we conceive to be explicable only by assuming that the  $\gamma$  belongs in reality to the article, and not to the preposition.

The article causes the following changes in the initials of

nouns.

1. If the noun begins with a vowel, the article prefixes  $\tau$  to the nominative singular of masculines, and h to the genitive singular of feminines: it prefixes h to all the cases of the plural except the genitive, to which n is prefixed. See below, No. 2.

2. If the noun begins with a mutable consonant, except το, τ, the article aspirates the initial mutables of masculines

in the genitive, and of feminines in the nominative.

After no and no the article aspirates in the dative of both genders. In some parts of Ireland eclipsis is used instead of

aspiration. Conn, in, also aspirates with the article.

In the genitive plural all initial mutables, including  $\sigma$  and  $\tau$ , are eclipsed, except  $\gamma$ . The reason of this is, that the genitive plural originally ended in n, as  $nn\alpha n$ ,  $n\alpha n$ . This n appears before vowels as mentioned in No. 1, and so in  $\alpha nn\gamma\alpha n$ 

τογαί, in the beginning.

3. If the noun begins with  $\gamma$ , followed by a vowel, or by  $\ell$ ,  $\eta$ , or  $\eta$ , wherever the article would aspirate other consonants, it, in this case, eclipses  $\gamma$  by prefixing  $\tau$ . The origin of this  $\tau$ , and also of that mentioned under No. 1, has not yet been satisfactorily explained.

4. If the noun should begin with l, l, or l, or l, or l before a mute, the article causes no change whatever, or in the singular of those beginning with l or l.

#### CHAPTER II.

#### THE NOUN.

#### § 9.—The Noun in General.

There are but two genders in Irish,—the Masculine and the Feminine. The following are a few general rules for ascertaining to which a noun belongs; but in most cases the learner must find the gender by experience, or from a lexicon.

The following nouns are masculine:-Names of men and

males generally.

Diminutives in άπ, ίπ; derivatives in αιόε, υιόε, οιόε, αιρε, αċ, αρ, ορ, and personal nouns ending in όιρ; as, bυαιλτεοιρ, a thresher; abstract substantives in αρ; as, τιπιεαρ, sickness; and usually monosyllables in αċ, υċτ, υρ, and υċ; as, υċτ, the breast.

The following are generally feminine:—Names of women and females, of countries, rivers, and diseases, diminutives in όξ; derivatives in αċτ; as, μίοξαċτ, a kingdom; and abstract substantives, except those in αγ; as, ξile, whiteness; and in most cases those nouns in which the last vowel is slender.

There are only two numbers, the singular and plural, and four cases distinct in form, the nominative, genitive, dative, and vocative. Under the nominative form are included the relations of the nominative and accusative, under the dative form,\* the relations of the dative and ablative. The vocative has always the particle  $\alpha$  prefixed, which aspirates the initial mutable.

<sup>\*</sup> In the former edition of this grammar the name prepositional was, after O'Donovan, given to this case; it is more convenient, however, to retain the term dative. It must be borne in mind that it is the preposition prefixed that makes it either dative or ablative, and that the aspiration that will be seen so frequently to occur in the initial letter of the noun in this case, as oo bold, is owing to the influence of the preposition oo, to, and is not a necessary adjunct of the dative case. The dative is, therefore, in this grammar, given in its nude form without the preposition, and consequently without the aspiration, and the same has been done in the case of the vocative.

The case endings in the modern language are, as might be expected, much fewer and less distinct than in the more ancient, in which the accusative singular and plural had frequently a distinct ending, and where also peculiar forms of the neuter and dual are found. The case distinctions appear at an earlier period to have been lost by the Welsh and Cornish, with the exception of that internal inflexion exhibited by the first declension in Irish, of which a few traces

exist even in those languages.

We may arrange the nouns in the modern language into five classes, or declensions, which follow. Some nouns partake of the characteristics of several declensions. Zeuss, treating of the ancient language, classifies the nouns into two divisions, the vowel and the consonantal declension, so designated on account of the crude bases ending respectively in vowels and in consonants. In the modern language there are, however, but few traces of the second division left, which may perhaps be enumerated as the fifth declension, with some few nouns of the third, namely, those that make their genitive singular end in  $\alpha \dot{c}$ .

#### § 10.—First Declension.

The first declension consists of masculine nouns whose genitive is formed from the nominative by adding a slender vowel to the broad one in the termination, or by changing the broad vowel or diphthong of the noun into a slender one.

In the plural the nominative is like the genitive singular,

and the genitive like the nominative singular.

The dative case in the singular is like the nominative; in the plural, it ends in 15, which is invariable throughout all the declensions.

The vocative case plural is formed by adding  $\alpha$  to the nominative singular.

Singular.

Nom. ball, a limb.
Gen. ball.
Dat. ball.

Voc. ball.

Plural.

Nom. ball.
Gen. ball.

Dat. ballab.
Voc. balla.

#### In like manner decline—

Singular.
vall, a blind man.
peap, gen. pip, a man.
mac, a son.

# Plural. cαγάη, a path. γόιάγ, comfort. bnomαċ, a colt.

Some nouns of this declension form the nominative plural by adding τα to the singular; as, γεολ, a sail, Pl. γεολτα. Whenever the nominative plural differs in form from the genitive singular, the dative plural is formed from it, not only in this, but in the other declensions, e. g. γεολταιό, so γξέαλ, a tale, Nom. Pl. γξέαλα, Dat. γξέαλταιό.

Many nouns ending in ac form the nominative plural by adding e to genitive singular; c in declension becomes  $\dot{z}$ ; as, watac, a burden, a charge; Gen. Sing. watac; Nom. Pl.

ualaiże.

§ 11.—Second Declension.

This declension comprises the greater part of the feminine

nouns in the language, and but few masculines.

The genitive singular has a slender increase. This causes an attenuation of the preceding syllable, if it be not slender already, according to the rule cool to cool, 7c.

The dative case is formed from the genitive by dropping

the increase.

The nominative plural has a broad or slender increase regulated by the rule, cool to cool, 7c.

Singular.	Plural.	Plural.				
Nom. and Voc. cop, a foot.  Gen cope.  Dat cop.	Nom. and Voc. coγα. Gen coγ. Dat coγαι					

In like manner decline-

un peoς, a lark. pgológ, a farmer. cloc, a stone.

Words in ó10 make their nom. pl. in o10e; e.g., popabó10,

a scolding woman; pl. repabóroroe.

Some nouns, the vowel of whose termination is slender, form the plural either by adding a slender termination, or eanna; as, tuib, an herb; Pl. tuibe, or tuibeanna: "but the latter form," says O'Donovan, "which is like the Saxon termination en (as in oxen), is more general, and better than the former, because more distinct and forcible." When the nominative plural terminates in this mode, the genitive plural is formed from it by dropping the a; e.g., the gen. pl. of tuib is tuibeann.

The vocative singular of masc. nouns having a broad vowel in the termination of the nominative is generally attenuated.

If the nominative plural be formed by adding to to the singular, as sometimes happens, the genitive plural is formed from it by adding at; as coill, a wood; plural nom. coillte; gen. coillteat; dat. coilltib.

#### § 12.—Third Declension.

The nouns of this declension are of both the masculine and feminine gender. It comprises nouns ending in  $\acute{o}_{1}$ p, fem. abstracts in  $\alpha \dot{c}_{2}$ , abstracts in  $e\alpha \gamma$ , monosyllables with 10, as  $\gamma_{1}$ 0 $\gamma$ , &c., and others.

The genitive singular has a broad increase.

The dative ends like the nominative in the singular number. The nominative plural takes a slender increase, toe and τe, and a broad increase in α, αnnα, and αċα.

	Sin	gular			Plural.				
Nom.	and	Voc.	riżeασόιη, a	Nom. Gen.	τιξεασόιμισε. τιξεασόιμ.				
Gen.			<b>ριξεασόηα</b> .	Dat.	<b>μιξεασόιμι</b> β.				
Dat.		•	rizeασόιη.	Voc.	τιξεασόιηισε.				
Voc.			rizearooin.						

Carefully observing the rule coot to coot, 7c, decline—

meαllτόιη, a deceiver. móιn, a bog. lιογ, a rath. γlánuiţċeoiņ, a saviour. rioŗ, knowledge. reoil, flesh.

Also, αταιρ, a father; gen. αταρ; nom. pl. αιτρε, or αιτρεαία, gen. αιτρεαί; δράταιρ, a brother, nom. pl. δράιτρε, or δράιτρεαία; and πάταιρ, a mother; also, cuio; gen. cooa, a part.

Those nouns in which the nominative plural ends in te, or te, form the genitive by adding at :- moin; gen. pl. moin-

ceασί.

Many feminine nouns in 1p make their genitive singular in αċ, as ταιρ, the oak, ταραċ; λαγαιρ, a flame, λαγραċ, &c. These nouns make their nominative plural in αċα, as λαγραċα, so cαċαιρ, a city, cαċραċ; nom. pl. cαċραċα.

Nouns in ear make their genitive either after the analogy of the first or third declension, as τιππας, sickness; gen. τιππις, or τιππαγα. The first form is the more common.

Certain nouns which take a broad increase also suffer an internal change; e.g., rior, knowledge, gen. reara; urr, news, gen. orra; tear, a rath, gen. teara, also tir.

#### § 13.—Fourth Declension.

The fourth declension comprises nouns of both genders which have no change in the singular number. Most nouns ending in vowels, and generally those in it, it, and in, are of this declension.

The nominative plural is generally formed by adding 10e,

te, and te, to nominative singular.

The genitive plural is formed by adding o or ao to nomina-

tive singular, and sometimes to the nominative plural.

It is, however, in common usage incorrectly, but frequently, made identical at one time with the nominative singular, and at another with the nominative plural.

Singu	lar.	Plural.					
Gen	ráinne, a ring. ráinne. ráinne.				ຊάາກກາວ່ອ. ຊάາກກາວ່າວ່ ຊάາກກາວ່າວ່		

Ourne, a person, makes σαοιπε; αιτπε makes αιτεαπτα in the nominative plural.

## § 14.—Fifth Declension.

Nouns of the fifth declension are of both genders, and generally end in vowels in the nominative.

The genitive singular is formed by adding n or nn.

The dative case is formed by attenuating the termination

of the genitive singular.

The nominative plural is generally formed by adding  $\alpha$  to the genitive singular. Some nouns of this declension form their plurals irregularly, but they will be learned by practice, or from the dictionary.

	Sin	gular	.	Plural.					
Nom.	and	Voc.	cómαργα, a	Nom. and Voc. cómappana and					
neig	hbou	r.		cómánram.					
Gen.			cómanran.	Gen.			cóinappan.		
Dat.		•	cómanram.	Dat.	•		cómapranait.		

#### In like manner decline-

τεαητα, a tongue.

peapra, a person.

ceaτραίηα, a quarter.

Teanza also makes τeanzċa, τeanzċaċa in the plural.

#### § 15.—Irregular Nouns.

"Oια, God; tά, a day; bean, a woman; bó, a cow; mí, a month; caoρa, a sheep; cpó, a hovel; bpú, or bpoinn, a womb; ceo, a fog; cpé, clay, are quite irregular, and are declined as follows:—

Ό1α,	m.,	God.	
0100			

Singular.	Plural.
· ·	
Nom. Όια.	Nom. Oée, or Oéice.
Gen. Oé.	Gen. Oia, or Oéiteat
Dat. $\mathcal{O}_{1\alpha}$ .	Dat. Oéib, or Oéicib.
Voc. Oé, or Όια.	Voc. Oée, or Oéite.

# lâ, m., a day.

•	o., a way.
Nom. Lá.	Nom. Lacte, or Laite, and
	laeteanta
Gen. Lae.	Gen. Laetear, or La.
Dat. Vá, or Vó.	Dat. Laetib, or Laitib.
Voc. lá, or lαe.	Voc. Laete, or Láite.
•	

#### bean, f., a woman.

Nom.	and	Voc.	beαn.	Nom.	and	Voc.	mnά.
Gen.			mnά.	Gen.			bαn.
Dat.	•	•	mnαοι.	Dat.	۵	•	mnάıb.

### bó, f., a cow.

Nom.	and	Voc.	bó.	Nom.	and	Voc.	bα.
Gen.		٧.	bó.	Gen.			bó.
Dat.			buin	Dat.			<b>b</b> uα16.

#### Mí, f., a month.

Nom.	and	Voc.	mí.	Nom.	and	Voc.	miora.
Gen.			miorα, mir.				mior.
Dat.			mir, mi.	Dat.			mioraib

# Caopa, f., a sheep.

Nom.	cαοηα.	Nom.	caoinis.
	caonac.	Gen.	caopac.
Dat.	caona	Dat.	cαορέαι b.
Voc.	cαοnα.	Voc.	caonica.

#### Cpó, m., a hut.

			- 1 7	,
	Sin	gula	r.	Plural.
Nom.	and	Voc	cpó.	Nom. and Voc. cpαοιτe, and cnóite.
Gen. Dat.			cnó.	Gen cpó. Dat cpαοιτίδ, and
Dat	•	•	cho.	choitib.

#### bpú, f., the womb.

Nom. and Voc. bponna. Nom. and Voc. bpú. bnuinne, or Gen. · bnonn. bnonn. Dat. bnonnaib. bnoinn.

Ceo, a fog, makes ceois and ciac in the genitive singular. Cné, f., clay, in the singular is declined thus:-

Nom. cné. Gen. cpiao. Dat. cpé. Voc. cné.

It would be well for the learner to practise himself in affixing the article to nouns. The changes and eclipses which are caused by the article have been stated in § 8. We give a few nouns here illustrative of the rules:-

an z-atam, the father. an z-aral, the ass. an reap, the man. an t-earboz, the bishop. an óis, the virgin. an mac, the son. an bean, the woman. an eala, the swan. an jeuz, the branch. an yliab, the mountain. an razant, the priest. an t-ruil, the eye. an monnac, the fox. an z-rlaz, the rod. an t-amzeal, the angel.

The gender of these nouns can be easily known by observing the influence of the article upon them.

#### CHAPTER III.

#### THE ADJECTIVE.

#### § 16.—The Adjective in General.

There are four declensions of adjectives. The changes that the adjective undergoes when connected with a noun will be treated of in § 21. We give the adjectives in their simple form, and have omitted the aspirations as not rightly belonging to them in that state, for these aspirations do not occur when an adjective is the predicate of a sentence.

With regard to their inflexions, it must be noted that the termination 15 of the dative plural is never used unless the adjective be used substantively. The dative plural in adjectives is identical in form with the nominative plural. In the older form of the language, however, 16 occurs with adjectives

as well as substantives.

#### § 17.—The First Declension.

The first declension consists of adjectives ending in conson-

ants having the vowel of the last syllable broad.

In the masculine the inflexions are the same as those of the first declension of nouns, except that the nominative plural ends in  $\alpha$ .

In the feminine the inflexions are the same as those of the

second declension of nouns.

#### Caol, slender.

Singula	vr.	Plural.
MASC.	FEM.	MASC. AND FEM.
Nom. caol.	caol.	Nom. caola.
Gen. caoil.	caoile.	Gen. caol.
Dat. cool.	cα016.	Dat. caola.
Voc. caoil.	caol.	Voc. caola.

#### In like manner decline-

$ holdsymbol{n}, \textit{great} one white. $

#### § 18.—Second Declension.

This declension consists of adjectives ending in consonants, and having the vowel of their last syllable slender.

The genitive singular masculine does not change, but the genitive singular feminine and nominative plural have a slender increase in e.

#### Mín, smooth.

Singular.		Plural.
Nom. and Voc. min. Gen min. Dat min.	mine.	MASC. AND FEM. Nom. and Voc. mine. Gen min. Dat mine.

Decline as examples, άργαις, ancient, and ταιγ, tender.

#### § 19.—Third Declension.

Adjectives ending in αmuι belong to this declension. The genitive singular, and nominative, vocative, and dative plural, are syncopated, and take a broad increase in α.

#### Zeanamuil, lovely.

Singular.	Plural.
MASC. AND FEM. Nom. Zeanamult. Gen. Zeanamla. Dat. Zeanamult. Voc. Zeanamult.	MASC. AND FEM. Nom. zeanamla. Gen. zeanamla. Dat. zeanamla. Voc. zeanamla.

#### In like manner decline-

reanamuit, manly.

zeanamuil, lovely. σαταπαίλ, handsome.

This termination, απιπί, means like (akin to γαπαπί, Lat. similis); e. g., γεαραπιπί, like a man, manly; ζίαγαπιπί, greenish (from ζίαγ, green); mπάταπιπί, effeminate (from the inflected form of bean). This termination occurs in nouns formed from these adjectives by adding the abstract termination ατο or ατο, as σαταπίτατο, comeliness; γεαραπίτατο, manliness; mπάταπίτατο, effeminacy; γαοιτεαπιπί, generous, γαοιτεαπίπιτο, generosity.

#### § 20.—Fourth Declension.

This declension consists of adjectives ending in vowels: they are alike in all cases, genders, and numbers.

#### Cloroa, aged.

Singular.	Plural.
MASC. AND FEM.	MASC. AND FEM.
Nom. αογοα.	Nom. aoroa.
Gen. aoroa.	Gen. aoroa.
Dat. αογοα.	Dat. aoroa.
Voc. αογοα.	Voc. aoroa.

#### § 21.—Adjectives declined with Nouns.

Adjectives beginning with mutable consonants are aspirated in the nominative singular feminine, in the genitive singular masculine, in the vocative case singular of both genders, and in the plural in the nominative masculine if the noun ends in a consonant; they are also aspirated in the dative singular masculine.\*

#### On reap zeal, the white man.

Singular.	Plural.
Nom. an rear seal. Gen. an rip fil. Dat. vo'n rear feal. Voc. a rip fil.	Nom. na rip zeala. Gen. na breap nzeal. Dat. vo na reapaib zeala. Voc. a reapa zeala.

<sup>\*</sup> It is not easy to lay down any general rule about the dative singular, as the influence upon the noun or adjective depends upon the preposition employed. The aspiration in the dative is modern and colloquial; in the written language eclipsis generally takes place.

#### On bean seal, the white woman.

Singular.

Nom. an öean żeal-Gen. na mná zile. Dat. vo'n mnaoi żil. Voc. a öean żeal. Plural.

Nom. na mná zeala. Gen. na mban nzeal. Dat. vo na mnáib zeala. Voc. a mná zeala.

After this manner the learner might exercise himself with the following, given by Neilson in his Irish Grammar:—

MASC.

άη λα τυαρ, the cold day. αη cραηη móp, the great tree.

FEM.

αη ἡαιτοιη ἡααρ, the cold morning. αη ἐλοċ πόρ, the great stone.

"Consonants," as O'Donovan remarks, "are aspirated in the plural merely for the sake of euphony, and not to distinguish the gender; for whenever the noun to which the adjective belongs terminates in a vowel, the initial consonant of the adjective retains its natural sound; as, ceota binne, sweet melodies.

#### § 22.—The Degrees of Comparison.

In both the comparative and superlative the form of the adjective is the same, and they are distinguished from one another only by the particle affixed, or the context.

The comparative is formed by putting níoγ before the genitive singular feminine of the positive, and the superlative by putting 1γ, or αγ, before the same; as zeal, white; níoγ zile,

whiter; ar 51le, whitest.

τρ is generally used before a slender vowel, αρ before a broad. πίσρ is probably a contraction for nήτο αρ, thing which is, as in certain collocations πίσρ cannot be correctly used; as, το ταθαργαπη τουτ έ τά m-bιατό ρέ πήτο θρεάμρ, I would give it to you if it were better, where πίσρ (πίτο αρ?) becomes πίτο θατό.

The particle níoγ is, however, sometimes omitted, e.g., in interrogative sentences; as, meaγαιό μέτη απ cóμα α διμαόπαιγε Ό, do you consider it is right in the presence of God? Acts iv. 19. Similar is the usage when the assertive verb 1γ or αγ begins the sentence, in which case níoγ, as O'Donovan remarks, is never used, as in the example cited by him, 1γ μέτρη mé 10nά τα, I am better than thou.

In the ancient language we meet with a comparative ending in ten, tin (Greek τερος, Sansk. तर, tara), and a super-

lative in em (Sansk. म, ma, Lat. mus, as, Sansk. त्रधम, ad-

hama, Lat. infimus, and  $\mathbf{q}$ , parama, primus, summus, minimus); but these terminations have disappeared in the modern language. The slender increase in niop 51e is really the comparative inflexion; compare the old Irish comparative in 1u, Sansk.  $\bar{\imath}yas$ , Lat. ior, ius, Greek  $\iota\omega\nu$ . The  $\alpha\gamma$  or  $\imath\gamma$  added to the superlative is in reality nothing but the substantive verb, the superlative being formed similarly to that in French by the addition of the article to the comparative form. That the  $\alpha$  and e are really comparative and superlative inflexions is evident from a comparison of the Cornish, where both degrees, without distinction, terminate in e and e.—Vid. Norris's Cornish Grammar, p. 22.

The adjective in the comparative and superlative undergoes no change, but is treated as an adjective of the fourth

declension.

# § 23.—Irregular Comparison.

The following adjectives are irregular in their comparison, that is, they form their comparatives, and some their superlatives, from adjectives now obsolete:—

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
beaz, little.	nior lużα.	<b>າ</b> ໆ ໄຫວ່α.
rασα, long.	nior raive, nior για	ir ria.
runur, easy.	nior ura, rura.	ης υγα.
rozur, near.	nior roizre, roirze.	ir roizre.
zαp, near,	nίος zoine, zaine.	
zeάρη, short.	ηίος ξιορρα.	
luαt, quick.	ηίος σύις ξει	ιγ σύιγξε. ιγ γεάρρ.
mαιċ, good.	níor reápp.	ır reάnn.
minic, often.	níor mioncα.	
móp, great.	níor mó.	ıγ mó.
olc, bad.	nior meara.	ir meara.
ceit, hot	níor teo.	ir teo.

Uuατ has also a regular comparative and superlative, tuαιτέ. The irregular comparative is borrowed from τύι, a beginning. There is another form, ταογτα, now in disuse. When τύιγτε is used it generally expresses order of time, and is used some-

1,0

what adverbially, e.g., mire an reap ba tuirze, I was the first man to do any thing; man ba tuirse é ná mire, for he was before me, John i. 30—Keane's Irish Testament. So níor τύιγγε ηά τάηγασαρ α ηγαρ σά céile, before they came together, Matt. i. 18.—Keane's translation. (ταογξα is the form used in O'Donnell's translation).

# § 24.—The Numerals.

The following is a list of the numerals:-

VALUE.	CARDINAL, one, ETC.	ORDINAL, first, ETC.		
1.	αon.	céατο.		
2.		σαρα.		
3.	τρί.	chear and chiomas.		
4.	cerène; abstract, cecicin.	ceachamao.		
5.	cúiz.	cúizmeαό.		
6.	ré.	reirmeασ and réimeασ.		
7. 8.	γεαότ.	reactmato.		
8.	oct.	oċτmασ•		
9.	ηαοι.	nαoṁατο.		
10.	oeic; abstract, σέας.	უeiċmeατό.		
11.	αοη-σέας.	aonmaj jéaz.		
12.	νειό; abstract, νέας. ανη-νέας. νό-νέας. τρι-νέας.	σαηα σέας.		
13.	τηι-οέας.	τρίοπαό σέας, οτ τρεαγ σέας.		
∠∪.	rice, ricce.	ricceασιμασ, ricceασ.		
21.	αοη α'γ γιόε, or αοη αη γιότο.	αοημαό αμ ξιζιο.		
30.	σειό αη έιόισ, τηιοόασ.	τριο έατο ή ατο το ει έπι εατό αρ τιτ έιτο.		
40.	σά τιόιο.	οά riceaomao.		
50.	ςαοξατο, ςαοξα, τοι ά ά το	σειċmεασ αμ σά μιἰσ.		
60.	chi ticio.	τηί τιċιοṁeαό.		
70.	σειό τη τηί τιόισ.	σειζήεα σα τρί ριζισ.		
80.	сеттре τιτιο, οττιποξασι	сет τρε τι το		
90.	nóċασ, σειċ ιγ ceiċpe	veicinear an ceitne ricio, or		
	riciro.	ηοέασαό.		
	ceuo and céαo.	ceuσασ and céασασ.		
1,000.		milearo.		
		mιUιúnατό.		
Oó and	d ceatain are never use	d with the noun, as they ex-		
ress the numbers in the abstract.				

The following plurals are used: μίζιο, twenties; céατοςα. hundreds; but in the enumeration of the hundreds, 200, 300, &c., the singular form is used. So mile; pl. milte; gen. The singular mile is used also in the enumeration mílzeari. of thousands, e.g., react mile reap, seven thousand men.

Lice is inflected thus: gen. riceco; dat. ricio.

makes its gen. céro. Milliún is inflected like a noun of the first declension.

CCon, one, and τά, two, aspirate the initial mutables of the nouns to which they are prefixed. Seαίτ, οἰτ, παοι, τεις, eclipse the initial mutables of their nouns, and prefix n to nouns beginning with a vowel. The eclipsis arises (vid. § 7) from their forms originally being γείτει (Sansk. saptan, Lat. septem), οἰτει (Sansk. ashṭan), noin (Sansk. navan, Lat. novem), τεὶ (Sansk. das'an, Lat. decem).

The following nouns, with the exception of being, are

formed from the cardinals :-

τής, or being, two persons. τριήρ, three persons. ceaτραρ, four persons. cúιξεαρ, five persons. γειγεαρ, six persons.

reactan, and moinfeirean, seven persons.

octan, eight persons.

naonban, nine persons.

σοισποασάη, ten persons.

Most of these are compounded of the cardinals, and the noun γεαη, a man; but this has long been forgotten in practice, as they are applied to women as well as men, and γεαη itself is sometimes expressed in addition, as John iv. 18, ότη του ὑάτσαη cúιζεαη γεαη αξατο, for thou hast had five husbands.

# CHAPTER IV.

# THE PRONOUN.

# § 25.—The Pronoun in general.

There are six kinds of Pronouns, viz.—Personal, Possessive, Relative, Demonstrative, Interrogative, and Indefinite. The compound pronouns need not be considered as a separate class, as they are merely personal pronouns with prepositions.

# § 26.—Personal Pronouns.

There are four personal pronouns:—mé, I;  $\tau$ ú, thou;  $\gamma$ é, he; and  $\gamma$ í, she, with their plurals; which, when used emphatically, take an additional syllable, called the "emphatic increase." We give here the two forms, simple and emphatic. It will be observed that the genitive case admits of no emphatic increase. The genitive is in common parlance the possessive pronoun. Vid. § 28.

This so-called "emphatic increase" appears in the Scotch Gaelic, Welsh, and Cornish, as well as the Irish. That added

to the first person plural, namely ne, is, as Zeuss has shown, a repetition of the pronoun; γn₁ being the older form of the first person plural, afterwards, the γ being rejected, n₁. The Welsh has also an emphatic or reduplicated form of ni, nyni. Similarly, in Cornish, thyn means to us, and is also found reduplicated thynny. The Welsh used reduplicated forms for all the persons; thus, mi, I, myvi (v being the secondary form of m), chwi, you, chwychi, &c. The Cornish also frequently repeats the pronoun in what Mr. Norris calls the second state; as, worty, against her, worty hy, id.; hy being the third pers. sing. fem.; it has also a broad increase similar to the Irish; as, dys, to thee; emphatic, dyso.

Sérean and racoran may perhaps be reduplicated forms, as the increase seems sometimes to be used without the pronoun being adjoined; as, ann ran to bi beata, in him was life. Zeuss gives similar instances, and notes that the ancient

form was rom and rem, alike for singular and plural.

#### First Person. Mé, I. EMPHATIC. Nom. mé. Nom. mire. Gen. mo. Dat. vamra. Dat. oam. Plural. SIMPLE. EMPHATIC. Nom. rinn. Nom. rinne. Gen. an. Dat. ouinne. Dat. ouinn. Acc. 1nn Second Person. Tú, thou. Singular. SIMPLE. EMPHATIC. Nom. cú, ċu. Nom. zura. Gen. vo. Dat. ouicre. Dat. ouic. Voc. tura. Voc. tu. Plural. SIMPLE. EMPHATIC. Nom. 716. Nom. ribre. Dat. ocoibre. Gen. bup. Dat. vaoib, vib. Voc. ribre. Acc. 16.

Voc. pib.

# Third Person Masculine. Sé, he.

# Singular.

	•
SIMPLE.	EMPHATIC.
Nom. ré.	Nom. rérean.
Gen. a.	Dat. vóran.
Dat. vó.	Acc. érean.
Acc. é	•

# Third Person Feminine. Si, she.

# Singular.

	•
SIMPLE.	EMPHATIC.
Nom. rí.	Nom. rire, ire.
Gen. a.	Dat. ore.
Dat. 701.	
100 1	

# Third Person Plural, Common Gender. Sigo, they.

SIMPLE.	EMPHATIC.
Nom. riao.	Nom. riaoran.
Gen. a.	Dat. σόι brean.
Dat. voit.	Acc. 1aoran.
Acc. 1070.	

Sinn, γιδ, γέ, γί, are the forms generally used for the nominative, and é, í, for the accusative; the forms inn, ib, are now nearly in disuse.

Ourin is used for oure when contempt is intended.

Pein, self, is often affixed to the personal pronouns; as, mé réin, myself, &c.

# $\S 27.$ —The Personal Pronouns with Prepositions.

The following combinations of the personal pronouns with prepositions occur so frequently that they ought to be carefully committed to memory. There are fifteen of them in common use, many others are used in the ancient language, and similar combinations are to be met with in all the Celtic languages.

# 1. With αz, at or with.

Singular	Plural.
azam, with me.	αzunn, with us.
αξατ, or αξατ, with thee.	azuit, with you.
aise, with him.	aca, with them.
aici, with her.	

# 2. With ar, out of.

Singular.

aram, out of me.

arao, or arao, out of thee.

ar, out of him.

airoe, airoi, out of her.

Plural.
aruinn, out of us.
aruib, out of you.
area, area, out of them.

# 3. With ap, upon.

Singular.
opm, on me.
opt, on thee.
aip, on him.
uippe, uipti, on her.

Plural.
oppuinn, on us.
oppuit, on you.
opta, or oppa, on them.

# 4. With cum, towards, to.

Singular.
cuzam, unto me.
cuzao, unto thee.
cuze, unto him.
cuice, unto her.

Plural. cuzann, unto us. cuzant, unto you. cuca, unto them.

# 5. With ve, from, off.

Singular.
To iom, from me.
To iot, from thee.
To e, from him.
To i, from her.

Plural.
vinn, from us.
vib, from you.
viob, from them.

# 6. With vo, to.

Singular.
vam, and vom, to me.
vanc, to thee.
vo, to him.
value, to her.

Plural.

σύιπη, to us.

σαοιΰ, σίΰ, to you.

σόιΰ, to them.

# 7. With e101p, or 101p, between.

Plural.

eατοριιηη, between us. eατορια, between you. eατορρα, and eατορτα, between them.

# 8. With ra, or ro, under.

Singular. τάm, under me. τάο, τάτ, under thee. ταοι, and τέ, under him. τάιτε, τάιτι, under her. Plural. rú1nn, under us. rú1b, under you. rúτα, under them.

# 9. With ann, in.

Singular.
10nnam, in me.
10nnao, 10nnac, in thee.
ann, in him.
1nnoe, 1nno1, in her.

Plural 10nnainn, in us. 10nnaib, in you. 10nna, in them.

# 10. With 1m, or um, upon or about.

Singular.
umam, about me.
umavo, umavo, about thee.
ume, about him.
umpe, umpp, about her.

Plural. umainn, about us. umaib, about you. umpa, about them.

# 11. With te, or ne, with.

Singular. Liom, piom, with me. Leat, piot, with thee. Leif, pif, with him. Lé, Léite, pia, with her. Plural.
Unn, pinn, with us.
Ub, pib, with you.
Ueo, piu, with them.

# 12. With o, or ua, from.

Singular.

uain, from me.

uaic, from thee.

uao, from him.

uaice, uaici, from her.

Plural.
uainn, from us.
uaib, from you.
uaia, from them.

# 13. With poin, before.

Singular.

pómam, before me.

pómao, pómao, before thee.

poime, before him.

poimpe, poimpi, before her.

Plural. pómann, before us. pómaib, before you pómpa, before them.

# 14. With cap, beyond.

Singular. topm, over me. topt, topato, over thee. tapip, over him. tapipe, tappi, over her. Plural.

τορηαιτη, over us.

τορηαιδ, over you.

τάρρα, τάρρτα, over them.

# 15. With the, through.

Singular. Thíom, through me. Thíot, through thee. Thío, through him. Thíóe, Thíói, through her. Plural.
τριπη, through us.
τρίϋ, through you.
τρίοτα, through them.

The emphatic increases for these compounds are, in the singular,  $\gamma\alpha$  for the first and second person,  $\gamma\alpha$  for the third person. In the plural, ne, n1, for the first person;  $\gamma\alpha$ ,  $\gamma\epsilon$ , for the second person; and  $\gamma\alpha$ n,  $\gamma\epsilon\alpha$ n, for the third person.

Observe all through the rule cool to cool, 7c.

# § 28.—Possessive Pronouns.

The possessives are :—mo, my; oo, thy;  $\alpha$ , his, or hers;

άρ, ours; bup, yours; and α, theirs.

The possessives mo, το, and bup take the emphatic increase γα, or γε; άτρ takes nα or ne; and α takes γαη, or γεαη, according to the rule cαοί το cαοί, γε.; but the increase is always postfixed to the noun qualified by the possessives, or if that noun has an adjective, to the adjective; e.g., mo ιάτητα, my hand; άτρ ξ-cinnne, our hands; α ιάτρ το caγγαη, his right hand.

Mo, vo, and  $\alpha$ , his, aspirate the initial mutables of their nouns; as, mo bean, my wife;  $\alpha$ n, bup, and  $\alpha$ , theirs, eclipse the same; as, bup mbp $\alpha$ tanp, your brother. The eclipsis arises from the fact that these pronouns originally ended in n, which form appears before vowels and the mediæ  $\sigma$  and  $\sigma$ ; their original forms were apn, rapn or ropn, and  $\sigma$ ,  $\sigma$ , hers, prefixes h to nouns beginning with a vowel. The  $\sigma$ , his, is the Sansk. asya, ending in a consonant, hence no change except before vowels;  $\sigma$ , theirs, was in its full form  $\sigma$ n, Sansk. eshâm, Lat. eorum. This coincidence was shown some twenty years ago by Bopp, the founder of Comparative Philology, in his essay on the Celtic Languages, of which it formed one of the most brilliant points.

The following are the combinations of the possessives with

prepositions :-

Singular.
Toom, to my.
Too, to thy.
To \(\delta\), to his, to her.

1. With 50, to.

Plural. σάρ, to our. σά, to their.

2. With te, with.

Singular. Vem, with my. Veo, with thy. 3. With an, in.

Singular.

am, in my.

ao, ac, in thy.

na, in his or her.

Plural.
'nάη, in our.
nα, in their.

4. With o, from.

Singular. óm, from my. óv, from thy. ónα, from his or her. Plural. όnα, from their.

# § 29.—Relative Pronouns.

The relative pronouns are  $\alpha$ , who, which, or what; noc, who, which; nác, which not. The primitive form of the relative  $\alpha$  for all genders was  $\alpha n$ , which by phonetic rule is intact before vowels and the mediæ  $\sigma$ ,  $\tau$ , and becomes  $\tau$  before  $\tau$ , and  $\tau$  before  $\tau$ , and  $\tau$  before  $\tau$ , and the tenues. Vid. Zeuss, p. 348.

Contractions frequently take place when the relative is preceded by a preposition ending with a vowel; as, our, len, &c.

Oάpb, or τάραb, and lepb, may be analyzed, as the case may be, τ'α ρο bα, to whom was, or τ' αρ αb, to whom is; bean τάρb αιππ Μαιρε, a woman whose name was Mary, or whose name is, &c.

Too, the sign of the past tense, frequently appears to stand for the relative in the modern language, but the cases cited may be explained on the simple view of supposing the relative to be omitted.

Oá is used frequently as a relative; this vá must be distinguished from vá, a compound of ve, of, and the relative  $\alpha$ , which would be better written v' $\alpha$ , of what.

# § 30.—Interrogative Pronouns.

The interrogatives are cia or ce; plural, ciao, who, what;

cao, cheuo, 30 oé, what; cá, 3á, what or where.

Cao (anciently cro, ceo), seems to have been the neuter of cra, though this use is lost in the modern language. So σé was anciently core; vid. Zeuss, p. 361.

# § 31.—Demonstrative Pronouns.

The demonstrative pronouns are:—γο, this, these; γιη, that, those; γύο, or ύο, yonder. They are all indeclinable.

"When To follows a word whose last vowel is slender, it is

written γ1, or γe, and sometimes γeo; as, nα h-αιμγιρε γ1, of this time (Keating's Hist. page 2); and γ1n, when it follows a word whose last vowel is broad, is written γαn or γ01n [γean?]"—O'Donovan. These changes are to accord with the rule caot te caot, γc.

rule caol le caol, 7c.

"Sứơ is generally used with personal pronouns, and ứτ with nouns."—Connellan. Examples are:—απ γεαρ ứτο, the

man yonder; τά τέ τύτο, it is he yonder.

# § 32.—Indefinite Pronouns.

These are:—éizin, some; zibé or cibé,\* whoever; aon, any; eile, other; a céile, each other; zac, every, each; zac uile, every; các, any other; neac, any one; ceaccap, or neaccap, either; an té, the person who; uile, all. Các makes cáic in the genitive singular; the rest are indeclinable. Some of these, it will be observed, are mere compounds which have obtained a sort of pronominal use, and others are more strictly pronominal adjectives.

# CHAPTER V.

# THE VERB.

# § 33.—Of the Verb in general.

The Irish verb has four moods:—the Indicative, Imperative, Conditional, and Infinitive. The Infinitive is used with the particles αξ, 1αμ, or αμ τί, in the sense of present, past, and future participles respectively.

There are five tenses, viz.:—the Present, Consuetudinal Present, Past, Consuetudinal Past, and the Future. The consuetudinal tenses might very properly be classified as a

separate mood.

The conditional mood is chiefly used in expressing a condition, and has frequently the particle  $\sigma \alpha$ , if, expressed before it. Other particles often precede it, especially 30. It may sometimes be rendered by the Latin imperfect subjunctive, but frequently has a sort of conditional future signification. Examples may be found in Matt. xiii. 15; xiv. 15, 36; xx. 19; Acts vii. 19, &c.

<sup>\*</sup> Spelled also 510 b'é, cía b'é, evidently for 510 or ciá bao é; cio b'é is whatever.

In the ancient language the consuetudinal past and present were alike. The consuetudinal past has, in the modern language, retained the ancient synthetic, or personal form, while the present has adopted the analytic, or impersonal.

The indicative mood is often used in the sense of a subjunctive, but the latter is not distinguished by any peculiar endings. Initial changes, however, frequently take place, but these are owing to the influence of the particles preceding.

The root of the verb, for practical purposes, may be considered to be the second person singular imperative active, from which all the other parts of the verb can be formed by affixing certain terminations. Changes also take place in the beginning, but they are generally phonetic, and caused by certain particles prefixed, which serve to mark out some of the moods and tenses, and are sometimes not expressed, but understood.

The persons of the verb are formed in two different ways, analytically and synthetically. The analytic mode expresses the various persons by the third person singular of the verb and the personal pronouns. The synthetic, which is the mode generally used in the ancient language, in Irish as elsewhere, expresses the persons by terminational endings. Thus, in the analytic mode, the verb is the same throughout, the different pronouns marking the various persons and the number. In the synthetic, the verb has distinct terminations for each person except the third person singular. Thus the analytic form of the present indicative of O1 is—

Singular. τά mé, I am. τά τύ, thou art. τά γé, he is. Plural.
τά γιηη, we are.
τά γιβ, you are.
τά γιαο, they are.

But the synthetic-

τάιm, I am. τάιρ, thou art. τά γέ, he is. τάπαοιο, we are. τάταοι, you are. τάιο, they are.

The analytic is generally used in asking a question; e.g., an labrann τά δαοιδίζε? Do you speak Irish? But in answering, the synthetic; labraim, I speak. The pronoun should not be used separately after the synthetic form, which would be a repetition of the pronoun; as δεαηγαίο γιαδ, they, they will do.

In English the analytic is the form used; in Latin the synthetic:—

I love, amo.

Thou lovest, amas.

He loves, amat.

We love, amanus.

You love, amatis.

They love, amant.

But even in the English language there are evident traces of a synthetic form: thus, thou lovest; he loves; where st and s are evidently traces of terminational endings.

In affixing the terminations to the verb, the rule cool te cool agur teatan te teatan must be constantly kept in mind.

The terminational endings of the verb are given in the Table on the opposite page.

# § 34.—Formation of Moods and Tenses.

#### A .- Active Voice.

The simplest form is the second person singular imperative

active; as, buail, strike.

The Present is formed by adding 1m, and the other personal endings, as given in the table, to the root; as, buculam, I strike.

The Consuetudinal Present (Englished by "habitually do;" as, buccleann me, I habitually strike), is formed by adding ann to the root. This tense has no synthetic form.

The Past Tense is formed by adding ar to the root, and prefixing oo, which always aspirates the initial mutable in the active, but makes no change in the passive voice.

The Consuetudinal Past is formed by adding ann and the

other terminations to the root; as, buail, so buailinn.

The Future is formed by adding μασ, and the other terminations to the root; as, buαι, buαιζρεασ. Verbs of more than two syllables ending in 151m in the first person singular present indicative active make the future in οἀασ, or οξασ; as, μοιλλητόμη, μοιλλητούασ, and μοιλλητούασ, to reveal. Futures of this class are inflected in the same mode as the present, with the exception of the first pers. sing.; e.g., μοιλλητούασ, μοιλλητούαση, μοιλλητούαση, φοιλλητούαση, φοιλλητούασ

The present and future tenses have each a relative form ending in ear, ar, and 10r; as, a ceilear, who conceals; a

ceilrear, who will conceal.

# TABLE OF PERSONAL ENDINGS.

			INDICATIVE MOOD.						S	
			IMPERATIVE MOOD.	Present.	Consuetudinal Present.	Past.	Consuetudinal Past.	Future.	CONDITIONAL MOOD.	ΙΝΕΙΝΙΤΙΝΕ ΜΟΟΣ, αὸ.
ACT		Singular.	2 3 aò ré.	1. 1m. 2. 1p. 3. 10 pé.	<ol> <li>αnn mé.</li> <li>αnn τά.</li> <li>αnn γé.</li> </ol>	1. αγ. 2. 1γ. 3. — γé.	1. 1111. 2. τά. 3. αό γέ.	1. pao. 2. pip. 3. pio pé.	1. run. 2. rú. 3. rió ré.	
Acrive Voice.	1000	Plural.	1. mαοιγ, or míγ. 2. fo. 3. 1σίγ.	1. mαοιο, or mío. 2. ταοι, or τί. 3. 10.	1. ann pun. 2. ann puñ. 3. ann paro.	1. aman. 2. aban. 3. avan.	1. mαοιγ, or míγ. 2. ταοι; or τί 3. 1σίγ.	1. pamaoro, primíro. 2. pro. 3. pro.	<ol> <li>ταπαοη, οι τιπήν</li> <li>τήτο</li> <li>τητό</li> </ol>	Participle, cô.
PASSIVE	1 10	Singular.	1. ταρ mé. 2. ταρ τά. 3. ταρ é.	<ol> <li>cap mé.</li> <li>cap τú.</li> <li>cap τú.</li> <li>cap é.</li> </ol>		<ol> <li>ατό mé.</li> <li>ατό τά.</li> <li>ατό έ.</li> </ol>	<ol> <li>ταοι, οι τί τω.</li> <li>ταοι, οι τί τά.</li> <li>ταοι, οι τί έ.</li> </ol>	1. pap mé. 2. pap tú. 3. pap é.	1. proe mé. 2. proe cú. 3. proe é.	INFIN. Mood, ca or ce.
PASSIVE VOICE.		Plural.	1. tap min. 2. tap pib. 3. tap 100.	1. ταρ 1111, or γ1111. 2. ταρ γ16. 3. ταρ 1ασ.		1. ແຕ່ ກາກາ. 2. ແຕ່ ການ. 3. ແຕ ເຕວ.	<ol> <li>ταοι, οι τί γιηη.</li> <li>ταοι, οι τί γιβ.</li> <li>ταοι, οι τί ιαο.</li> </ol>	1. pap pinn. 2. pap pib. 3. pap 100.	1. próe mm. 2. próe mb. 3. próe mo.	e. Part., τα or τe.

The Conditional Mood is formed by adding runn, and the various terminations given in the table, to the root; as, bual, bualrunn. When, however, the future ends in ocao, the conditional is formed from it by changing the aro of the future into ann, the terminations being the same, with this exception, as in regular verbs; e.g., rollyeocann,

rollreocá, &c.

The Infinitive is formed (1) by adding at to the root and prefixing 50, which generally aspirates the initial mutable: this is the most usual mode, but it is (2) sometimes like the imperative; as, repror, infinitive, to destroy. (3). Some verbs drop a slender vowel; as, cuip, infin. 30 cup, to place. (4). Those in un's form their infinitive by adding the usual termination αό, only dropping the 1; as, beannuis, infinitive, so beannusas, to bless. Those in 15 form it in the usual mode, only inserting a broad vowel after the 1, generally u; as, roillyis, infinitive, o'roillyiusao, to show. These changes, it should be borne in mind, are only euphonic, arising from that oft-repeated rule cool le cool, 7c. (5.) Some add to the root, but, as O'Donovan says, these have a second form; azain, infinitive, o'azaint, or o'aznao, to reprove. (6.) Some add amuin; as, chero, infinitive, so cheroeamuin, to believe. (7.) Some add at; as, armuit, \* infinitive, o'armail, to confess. O'Donovan remarks: "In all verbal nouns borrowed from the English this termination is used in the corrupt modern Irish; as, boxáil, to box; cicáil, to kick; polláil, to roll; γπάσαι, to smooth," &c. (8.) Others, απ; as σέαπ, infinitive, σο σέαπαπ, to do. (9.) Others, again, ατο; as, érro, infinitive, o'érroeaco, to listen. (10.) Some few end in rin; as, reic, o'reicrin, to see. And lastly, some are so irregular that they can be reduced to no rule; as, 10pp, σ'ιαρραιό, to ask; zlaoό, infinitive, το żlaoόαć, to cry out. These last must be learnt by practice, or by consulting the Dictionary.

The so-called participles, as has been remarked in § 33, are merely the infinitive used with certain particles; for the present, α or α5, for the past, 1αρ, which eclipses the initial mutable, and αρ τί, or le for the future. These are fre-

quently used as verbal nouns.

<sup>\*</sup> This form is rare in verbs of this ending, uiz: they generally follow (4) in the formation of their infinitives.

#### B.—Passive Voice.

In the Passive Voice the analytic mode of forming the persons prevails; there is, therefore, only one terminational ending to be learned for each tense.

The Imperative is formed by adding cap to the root. It

has a first person singular.

The Present Indicative is formed by adding the same terminational ending.

There is no separate form for the Consuetudinal Present.

The Past is formed by adding αό, and prefixing oo, which

in this voice makes no change in the initial mutable.

The Consuetudinal Past is formed by adding zao1 or zi: when the particle zo is prefixed, it does not affect the initial letter.

The Future is formed by adding an or ran to the impera-

tive active.

The Conditional Mood is formed by adding troe to the root.

The Infinitive is formed by adding the termination  $\tau\alpha$  or  $\tau e$ , and prefixing the infinitive of the verb to be; as, so beit buadle, to be struck.

The Participle is formed by adding to or te.

The Passive voice may also be formed, as in English, by the various parts of the verb to be, and the passive participle; as, tá mé buatte, or tám buatte, I am struck.

# § 35.—Aspirations and Eclipses.

In order to account for the various changes in the initials of the verb, we shall here give a list of such particles as aspirate and eclipse.

# A .- Those that Aspirate.

1. CCρ, whether? (compounded of an, whether, and po, sign of the past tense). It is only prefixed to the past tense.

2. To and no, signs of the past tense, and no the sign of

the infinitive.

3. Jup, that (compounded of 50, that, and no, sign of the past). It is only used with the past tense. O'Donovan points out an exception, Jupab é, that it is he.

4. Má, if; prefixed to the indicative mood.

5. Man, as, like as.

6. Nácap, which not (compounded of nác, that not, and no, sign of the past); prefixed to the past. It is generally contracted into nan.

7. Ní, not; prefixed to the present and future. Ní sometimes eclipses, as ní bruain mé, I have not found, Luke xxiii.

14, Keane's version; ní bruilim, I am not.

8. Níop, not (compounded of ní, the preceding particle, and no); prefixed to the past.

# B.—Those that Eclipse.

On eclipsis, see § 7.
1. Cn, whether? The eclipsis, perhaps, arises from the influence of the n.

2. To, that; the ancient form of this was con, which ex-

plains the ellipsis.

3. 'Oά, if; prefixed to the conditional mood. The original n is seen in the old form vian. Vid. Zeuss, p. 670.

4. 1αp, after; only prefixed to participles. The full form

was 1ann.

5. The relative α (anciently αn) when preceded by a preposition, either expressed or understood, as ό α το-τάιπις, from whom came; unless the particle po, the sign of the past, or an abbreviation of it follows, in which case the verb is regularly aspirated; e.g., Coam on raraman, i.e., Coam o a no raraman, Adam from whom we have sprung.

6. Man a, where, in which; as man a noubaint, where he said. The ellipsis is here caused by the relative a; see pre-

ceding paragraph.

7. Muna, unless; compounded of má, if, and na, not. The eclipses arise from the na, which appears in the form nan, nam, i.e., compounded with the relative an (Zeuss, p. 702); see No. 5. Its ancient form was manı.

8. Mac, which not. In the past tense this is compounded with no, and becomes nάp, nάcap; it then aspirates, the aspiration arising, not from nác, but po. Zeuss (p. 703) does not seem to offer an explanation of the eclipsis; but it may, perhaps, arise from the relative on being inherent in the word.

# § 36. The Regular Verb.

The following table contains the paradigm.

# TABLE OF THE REGULAR VERB-buat, to strike.

PERATIVE MOOD.  Present Tense. Onsuetudinal Present  Past.  Future.  Future.  INFINITIVE MOOD.	ACTIVE VOICE. PASSIVE VOICE.	Singular. Plural. Singular. Plural.	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	1. buadom. 1. buadomío. 1. buadoeap mé. 2. buadoeap pin. 2. buadoe pe. 3. buados. 3. buados. 3. buados. 3. buados. 3. buados.	1. buadeann mé. 1. buadeann prin. 2. buadeann cá. 2. buadeann prib. 3. buadeann pé. 3. buadeann prao.	1. To bumbear. 1. To bumbear $\frac{1}{2}$ to bumbear	1. το buachmn.       1. το buachtift.       2. το buachtift.       3. το buachtift.       3. το buachtift.       3. το buachtift.       3. το buachtift.	1. buadpear. 1. buadpear mé. 2. buadpear mí. 2. buadpear mí. 3. buadpear mí. 3. buadpear mí. 3. buadpear na. 3. buadpear na.	1. $\operatorname{bundprise}$ mé. 2. $\operatorname{bundprise}$ mé. 2. $\operatorname{bundprise}$ mi. 3. $\operatorname{bundprise}$ mi. 3. $\operatorname{bundprise}$ mi. 3. $\operatorname{bundprise}$ min. 4.	30 bualαό. Participle, αξ bualαό. Infin. α beit bualte. Part. bualte.
St.	ACTIVE VOI	Singular.		. 6. 6.	-: 6: 6:	To bumber. 1. 2. 2. 2. Do bumbre. 3.	vo bualtinn. 1. 2. vo bualtear ré. 3.	bualteaσ. 1. 2. 2. bualtro γέ. 3.	- 64 67 1- 1- 1- 1- 1- 1- 1- 1- 1- 1- 1- 1- 1-	1
			IMPERATIVE MOOD. 2. 3.		Consuetudinal Present. 2. 3.			. 9 <u>. 9</u>	CONDITIONAL MOOD, 2. 3.	Ινεινιτινε Μοορ, το διαλαό.

# § 37.—Irregular Verbs.

There are thirteen irregular verbs, viz.:—1. bí, the substantive verb, to be. 2. Cbaip, to say. 3. beip, to bear.
4. Cíòim, to see. 5. Cluin, to hear. 6. Téan, to do. 7. βαξ, to find. 8. ξním, to do. 9. 1t, to eat. 10. Riξ, to reach.
11. Ταβαίρ, to give. 12. Ταρ, to come. 13. Τέιτο, or τέ, to go.

# § 38.—The Substantive Verb, bi, to be.

# IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
bi. bioo, or bioeco ré.	bimip biöiö. bioip.

# Indicative Mood. PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	Plural.
ατάιπ, and τάιπ.	ατάπαοιο, and τάπαοιο.
ατάιρ, and τάιρ.	ατάταοι, and τάταοι.
ατά γέ, and τά γέ.	ατάιο, and τάιο.

There is another form also used, viz., if or at me, if or at at, &c. This form is called by O'Donovan "the assertive verb." It may be called from its use the assertive present. Vid. § 64.

# Negative and Interrogative form.

Singular.	Plural.
ธีรุนาใเพ.	ອີຊຸນາໄຫາ່ວ.
ອ້ານາໃງກຸ.	ອ້ານເປັນເຂົ້າ.
bruil ré.	ອື່ນາໃນວ.

It will be understood that this form requires the negative or interrogative particles preceding, as, ní bruilim, I am not; an bruil τώ, are you? There is also a relative form of the present, namely, bίος.

#### CONSUETUDINAL PRESENT.

Singular.	Plural.
bíron.	bimio.
bíron.	bíċí.
bíreann, or bíonn ré.	bío.

This, with the exception of the third singular, is a regular present for bi. The third singular was also, anciently, bio

pé. It is, however, used in the modern language as a consuctudinal present.

	PAST.	
Singular. bi σ e α p. bi σ i p e. bi γ e.		Plural. biomαη biobαη. bioσαη.

# Negative and Interrogative form.

Singular.	Plural.
nabar.	pabamap.
nabar.	pababap.
nab ré.	pababap.

There is also another form, akin to this latter (vid. Zeuss), used, however, only in the analytic form, viz., baö, sometimes spelled buö, or ba. The form buö is sometimes, though rarely, used for the future.

#### CONSUETUDINAL PAST.

Singular.	Plural.
bí το inn. το το τ	bimip. biti. bioip.

#### FUTURE.

Singular.	Plural.
bei σ κά, οτ bιασ. bei σ μέ, οτ bιαισ μέ.	beາວໍາກ່າວ, or bາແວ້ກາແດງວັດ beາວ່າວັດ, or bາແວ້ແາ້ວ. beາວ່າວັດ, or bາແາວ.

# CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Singular,	Plural.
berönnn.	beröimír.
beröteá.	beröčío.
beroeao ré.	beroir,

# INFINITIVE MOOD.

oo beit.

# PARTICIPLE.

as beit.

The form ab occurs with the particles oo, 50, 5up, &c., in a past and present signification, and also with evident pro-

priety in some interrogatory sentences; as, το' b άλυιη αη bean 1, she was a beautiful woman; το ειριπ τυραδ é, I say it is, or was, as the case may be; αδ é γο αη γεαρ, is this the man?

§ 39.—Cbaip, to say.

#### ACTIVE VOICE.

#### IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

. . . . αbαιη.

abpao ré.

Plural.

# INDICATIVE MOOD. PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

veihim, or appaim.

veinin, or abnain. vein ré, or abnaiv ré. Plural.

σειμιπίσ, οτ αδηαπαοισ, αδημαπ. σειμείσ, οτ αδημαίσ. σειμισ, οτ αδημαίσ.

# CONSUETUDINAL PRESENT.

veineann mé, τú, γé, 7c.

#### PAST TENSE.

Singular.

oubpap.

oubpap.

oubape ré.

Plural.

oubpamap.

oubpabap.

bubpaoap.

#### CONSUETUDINAL PAST.

Singular.

σειμιπη. σειμέεά. σειμεαό γε. Plural.

ວຍານາຫາງເ ວຍານວ່າວ່. ວຍານາວາງເ

#### FUTURE.

Singular.

oéantao. oéantain. oéantaio ré. Plural. annamaon

σέαμταπαοιο. σέαμταιο. σέαμταιο.

#### CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Singular.

oéappainn.

oéappá.

oéappaö pé.

Plural.

σέαρταπαοιγ.

σέαρταιό.

σέαρταιοίγ.

Infinitive Mood.
το ηάτ.

Participle. ας μάτο.

#### PASSIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood. abaptap mé, 7c.

Indicative Mood.

Present tense.

veintean, or abantan mé, tú, 7c.

PAST.
oubpao mé, 7c.

consuetudinal past. veinčí mé, 7c.

> FUTURE. véappap mé, 7c.

Conditional Mood. véappaire mé, 70.

Infinitive.
To beit páite.

Passive Participle.
ηάιότε.

The past tense, active, is not aspirated except after ní, not; nor does it take the particles so or no before it. It is probably a contraction of so beinear, from the old verb, beinim, I say, into sobnar, and thence into subnar.

§ 40.—bein, to bear.

#### ACTIVE VOICE.

# IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

beip. beipeað ré. Plural. beາpາmip. beາpາວ່. beາpາວ່າp.

# INDICATIVE MOOD.

#### PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.
beipim.
beipip.
beipiö ré.

Plural.
beipimio.
beipičio.
beipio.

#### CONSULTUDINAL PRESENT.

beineann mé, 7c.

#### PAST TENSE.

Singular.

puzar.

puzar.

puzar.

puz ré.

Plural.
puzamap.
puzabap.
puzaoap.

#### CONSULTUDINAL PAST.

Singular. beipinn. beipėa. beipeao ré.

Plural.
beipimir.
beipti.
beiptoir.

#### FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.
béappao.
béappaip.
béappaio ré.

Plural.
béappamaoro.
béappaíro.
béapparo

# CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Singular. béappainn. béappá. béappað pé. Plural.
béappamaoip.
béappaio.
béapparoip.

Infinitive Mood. oo bheic.

Participle.

#### PASSIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood. beintean mé, τά, 7c.

Indicative Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

beintean mé, 70.

CONSUETUDINAL PAST. Beinti mé, tú, 7c.

FUTURE TENSE.

béαρραρ me, τά, 7c-

Conditional Mood. béappaíoe mé, 7c

Infinitive Mood. oo beit beinte.

Passive Participle.

§ 41.—Ċıöım, to see.

ACTIVE VOICE.

Indicative Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

Singular. cióim, or cim. cióin, or cin. ció pé, or ci pé. Plural. číromiro, or čírmiro. číročí, or čírcí. číroiro, or číro.

#### CONSUETUDINAL PRESENT.

ċιὁeαnn mé, τú, 7c.
PAST TENSE.

Singular.

connancar, conncarconnancar, connair re, connair re.

Plural.

concaman, conneaman concaban, conneaban, conneaban,

#### CONSUETUDINAL PAST.

Plural.
ໍດຳຈັກາງ ດຳຈັດຳຈັດ ດຳຈັດຳຈຸດ

#### FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.	Plural.
ċίοτeαο.	ċíròrımíro.
ciorn.	čí oricí o.
ċίστιο γέ.	ciópio.

Conditional Mood. ciórinn, cióreá, 70.

#### PASSIVE VOICE.

Indicative Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

chocean mé, cú, 7c.

PAST TENSE. connαρασό, or connασό, mé, τύ, 7c.

CONSUETUDINAL PAST.

ċiōċí mé, 7c.

ruture tense. ciòrean mé, 7c.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

ciopioe mé, 7c.

This verb wants the imperative and infinitive moods and participle active and passive, but they are supplied by raic,

which ought not to be classed among the irregular verbs as it is regular in all its moods and tenses.

The present and future tenses of this verb have the peculi-

arity of being aspirated like the past.

# § 42.—Cluin, to hear.

This verb is regular, except in the past tense, the infinitive mood, and participle.

#### PAST.

Singular.
cualar.
cualar.
cualarò ré.

Plural. cualamap. cualabap. cualavap.

Infinitive Mood. To, or a cloiptin.

Participle.

§ 43.—Oéan, to do.

# ACTIVE VOICE.

# IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

Plural.

σέαπαπαοιγ, σέαπαπαοισ and σέαπαπ. σέαπαϊό. σέαπαισίγ.

véαn. véαnα v ré.

# Indicative Mood.

Singular.

véanaim.

véanaip.

véanaiv ré.

Plural.

σέαπεαπαοισ.

σέαπταοι.

σέαπταοι.

# CONSUETUDINAL PRESENT.

oéanann mé, 7c.

#### PAST TENSE.

Singular.

όεάρηας, and όέαπας. όεάρηαις, and όέαπαις. όεάρηαό, and όέαη γέ. Plural.

#### CONSUETUDINAL PAST.

Singular.

öéαnαınn, and öeápnαınn.

σέαητά. σέαηασ, and σεάρηασ γέ. Plural.

σέαπαπαοιγ, and σεάρπαπαοιγ. σέαπταοι σέαπαισίγ, and σέαμπαισίγ.

#### FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

véantain.
véantairi ré

Plural.

ວຣ໌ແກະແກແດງວ່າ

ວຣ໌ແກະແກ້ວ່າ

ວຣ໌ແກະແກ້ວ່າ

# CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Singular. öéanpainn.

öéαnταιnn. öéαnτά. öéαnταö γέ. Plural.

ວໍຣ໌ແກະແກແດງເລີ່າ.

ວໍຣ໌ແກະແງວງເລີ່າ.

ΙΝΓΙΝΙΤΙΝΕ Μοο**υ.** το σέαπατο.

**PARTICIPLE.**ας σέαπατ, οτ ας σέαπατο.

# PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Indicative Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

Oéancan mé, ċú, ⁊c.

PAST TENSE. σέαηαό, and σεάρηαό mé, 7c. FUTURE TENSE.

Conditional Mood. béançaibe me, 70.

Infinitive Mood.

Passive Participle.

§ 44.— $\alpha$ ; to find.

ACTIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

 Plural.

rażmaoip, or rażmaoio. rażaio. rażaioip.

# INDICATIVE MOOD.

#### PRESENT TENSE.

Singular. rażaim. rażaip.

ταξαιτό γέ.

Plural.

τάξπαοιο. ταξταίο. ταξαιο.

Or,

Singular. Żeibim. Żeibip. Żeib ré.

Plural. ຮູ້ອານີກາວ. ຮູ້ອານີວ່າວີ. ຮູ້ອານີວ

#### PAST TENSE.

Singular.

ruanar.

ruanair.

ruan ré.

Plural.

ruanaman.
ruanaban.
ruanaoan.

#### CONSUETUDINAL FAST.

Singular. ţeibinn. ţeibteá. ţeibeato ré. Plural.
ຮູ້ອານີເກົາ.
ຮູ້ອານີເວົ້າວ່າ
ຮູ້ອານີເວົ້າວ່າ

And,

Singular. †aţaınn. †aţoá. †aţaō γé. Plural.

ταξαπαοιρ.

ταξταίο.

ταξαιοίρ.

#### FUTURE TENSE.

Singular.

żeabao, or żeobao. żéabap, or żeobap. żéabao, or żeobao γέ. Plural.

żeabamaoro, or żeobamaoro.
żeabaro, or żeobaro.
żeabaro, or żeobaro.

#### INTERROGATIVE AND NEGATIVE FUTURE.

Singular.

່ອ່ະກາຊ່ອαວ. ອີ່ະກາຊ່ອນ ອີ່ະກາຊ່ອນ ໄດ້ Plural. Β΄τιι ξεαπαοιο.

ຽ້ະຄາຊີຣ໌ດແລວເລ ຊີ້ ອີ້ນາຊີຣ໌ດແລ້

#### CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Singular.

żeobαnn, or żéαbαnn. żeobċά, 7c. żeobα<mark>o γ</mark>é, 7c. Plural.

ξεοδαπασιρ, οτ ξέαδαπασιρ. ξεοδατό, 7c. ξεοδατόρ, 7c.

Infinitive Mood.

σ'τάξαιδ.

Participle.
ας τάξαιλ.

# PASSIVE VOICE.

Imperative Mood.

Indicative Mood.

PRESENT TENSE.

paţċap mé, ċú, ⁊c.

PAST TENSE.

ruαραό, or rpít mé, tú, 7c.

consuetudinal past. żeibti, or ruiżti mé, tú, 7c. Conditional Mood.

§ 45.—\nim, to do.

#### ACTIVE VOICE.

# INDICATIVE MOOD.

#### PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.

zním.
zníp.
zníò ré.

Plural.

Śnimio.

Śniċiċ.

Śniċ.

#### PAST TENSE.

Singular. ຮູ້ກຳຈັດແຖ, or ກາຮູ່ກາດຖະ. ຮູ້ກຳຈັງຖຸ, or ກາຮູ່ກາຖາ. ຮູ້ກຳຈັງ ຖຸຣຸ່, or ກາຮູ່ກາຍ ຖຸຣ໌, and ກາກກາ ຖຸຣ໌.

#### CONSUETUDINAL PAST.

Singular.

zníonn.

zníoceá.

zníoceá ré.

#### PASSIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

znitean mé, 7c.

CONSUETUDINAL PAST.

znítí mé, 7c.

This verb wants the other tenses, or they are formed from τέαπ. Riξnear in the past tense is evidently a contraction of no, sign of the past, and zeanair=zniτear.

# § 46.—1<del>;</del>, to eat.

This verb is regular, except in the future tense and Conditional Mood.

#### FUTURE.

Singular.	Plural.
ioppao.	ίογταμαοιο.
ίομται <b>ό μέ</b> .	ίογταιό. ίογταιο.

# CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
ίογταιηη.	ίορταιπαοιρ.
ίογτά.	ίορταϊό.
ίογτα γέ.	ίορταιοί <b>ρ.</b>

# INFINITIVE MOOD.

#### o'ite.

The regular Past is σ' τἐσας; there is, however, an old form συας, which may be contracted for σ'τἑσας, στὰσας, συας; this is seldom used in the spoken language, but is in the New Testament—συαιό ευσ σο τἰξεςι τυας mé—the zeal of thy house has eaten me up—John, ii. 17; and ταρέις α ξευιπεσίτα εισιρ α ζάπαιδ ὁόιδ, συασαρ 1ασ, after rubbing them between their hands, they ate them.—Luke, vi. 1.

# § 47.—R15, to reach.

# IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural
 พร่	pາຮູ້míp. ກາຮູ້າວໍ.
nizeao ré.	higioip.

# INDICATIVE MOOD.

#### PRESENT TENSE.

Singular.	Plural
ານຮູ້າກ.	າງວຸ່າກ່າວ.
יון לוף.	ານຮູ້ວ່າ.
niż ré.	יסוצות

#### CONSUETUDINAL PAST.

 Singular.
 Plural.

 γιξιπη.
 γιξπήγ.

 γιξτά.
 γιξτά.

 γιξεαό γέ.
 γιξοίγ.

FUTURE TENSE.
ηιζρεαο.

Conditional Mood.

Infinitive Mood.

§ 48.—Tabain, to give.

#### ACTIVE VOICE.

#### IMPERATIVE MOOD.

 Plural.

cabpamaoıp.

cabpaiö.

cabparoip.

# INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

beinim, cuzaim, and cabnaim.

CONSUETUDINAL PRESENT. beineann mé, τυζαπη mé, and ταθηαηη mé.

#### PAST TENSE.

Singular.

tuzar.

tuzar.

tuzar.

tuzar.

Plural.

tuzaman.

tuzaban.

tuzaoan.

beiminn, and tuzainn.

FUTURE.

béapparo, and rabapparo, 7c.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

béappainn, tabappainn, and tiubpainn.

Infinitive Mood.
το τάβαιρτ.

Participle.
ας τάβαιρτ.

#### PASSIVE VOICE.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

beintean, tustan, and tabantan mé, 7c.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.
beintean mé, and τυζταη mé, 7c.

PAST TENSE.

τυςαό mé, 7c.

CONSUETUDINAL PAST.

beintite, or tustaite mé, 7c.

FUTURE.

béappap, and tabappap mé, 7c.

CONDITIONAL MOOD.

βέαργαιόε, and ταβαργαιόε mé, 7c.

Passive Participle.

τυςτα, and ταθαρτα.

This verb is made up of three defective verbs—bein, cus, and cabain. The tenses of those verbs which are used may be perceived by reading the verb as given above. The past tense is that of cus only. There is a peculiarity in the use of beining, the present; viz., that it takes the particle to before it, sometimes expressed and sometimes understood, and then the b is aspirated as in the past tense.

 $\S$  49.—T $\alpha p$ , to come.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

ταρ, ταιρ, οr τις.
τιζεαό, οr ταζαό γε.

Plural.

τιςιπήγ, οτ ταςαπαοιγ.
τιςήτο.
τιςήτο, οτ ταςαιτήγ.

# INDICATIVE MOOD.

#### PRESENT TENSE.

 Singular.
 Plural.

 σιξιπι.
 σιξιπίο, οι σιξιπίο.

 σιξιτ.
 σίξδιο.

 σιξ γέ.
 σιξισ.

#### PAST TENSE.

 Singular.
 Plural.

 τάπξαρ.
 τάπξαμαρ.

 τάπξαβαρ.
 τάπξαβαρ.

 τάπης γε.
 τάπςασαρ.

 Or,

 Singular.
 Plural.

 μάπξαμ\*
 μάπξαπαμ.

 μάπξαμτ.
 μάπξαβαμ.

 μάπαις, οτ μάπης γέ.
 μάπςασαμ.

#### CONSUETUDINAL PAST.

 Singular.
 Plural.

 τιςιπη.
 τιςιπήγ.

 τιςτά.
 τιςτά.

 τιςτά.
 τιςτά.

 τιςτά.
 τιςτά.

#### FUTURE TENSE.

 Singular.
 Plural.

 τιοςταπο.
 τιοςταπαοιο, οr τιοςταπ.

 τιοςταιο.
 τιοςταίο.

# CONDITIONAL MOOD.

 Singular.
 Plural.

 τιοεραιπι.
 τιοεραπαοιγ.

 τιοερά.
 τιοεραϊο.

 τιοεραισίγ.
 τιοεραισίγ.

# Infinitive Mood.

σο τεαίτ.

# PARTICIPLE.

ας τεαέτ.

<sup>\*</sup> Some grammarians make this the past of ριξ; but it is evidently a contraction for γιο τάπραγ; its general meaning in the third person is, it came to pass; they happened: ράπραιγ, you happened to be, &c.

§ 50.—Téro, or té, to go.

# IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.

τέι ο κ τέι ο εαο γέ. Plural.

τέι όπίρ, οτ τέιπίρ. τέι ότό. τέι ότο ίρ.

#### INDICATIVE MOOD.

#### PRESENT TENSE.

Singular. Céiroim. Céiroip,

céro ré.

Plural.

Téliomio, or Télimio.

Téliotio, or Télitio.

Téliolo, or Télio.

#### PAST TENSE.

Singular. ċuα˙οαρ. ċuα˙οαιρ. ċuαi˙ο ρέ. Plural.

ċuαὁmαρ.

ċuαὁὑαρ.

ċuαὁοαρ.

#### CONSUETUDINAL PAST.

Singular. ċéioinn. ċéioċeά. ċéioeαο γé. Plural.

téromir

téroti

térotí

#### FUTURE TENSE.

Singular paċrao paċraip paċraio ré. Plural.

paċramaoio.

paċraiō.

paċraio.

Or, ηαċατο, ηαċαιρ, ηαċαιτό γέ, omitting the p.

# CONDITIONAL MOOD.

Singular. paċrann. paċrá. paċraċ ré. Plural.

μαċτατιαοιρι

μαċταίτοι

μαċταιτοίρι

Infinitive Mood.

PARTICIPLE.

The past tense is often beacar. This form is used after ní,

and the interrogative  $\alpha$ , and with 50, &c.

"Haliday, the Rev. Paul O'Brien, and others, make imtize a form of the imperative mood of this verb; but this cannot be considered as correct; as, imtizim, which is a regular verb, signifies I depart, not I go. In some parts of Munster the imperative of tetrium, I go, is frequently made equiz (and sometimes, corruptly, tenniz); but this must be deemed an anomaly, as it is properly the imperative of equizim, I arise."

—O'Donovan.

# § 51.—Defective Verbs.

The following defective verbs are used in the spoken language:—

an ré, said he.

van Liam, methinks; van Leip réin, he himself thinks; van Leo, they think

oliξtean, it is allowed.

ρεασαρ, I know; only used negatively and interrogatively, and in the present tense; ní ρεασαρ mé, I do not know; ní ρεασαιρ ρέ, ní ρεασματηρ, &c.

τάηία, it happened.

# CHAPTER VI.

Particles.

§ 52.—Adverbs.

There are few simple adverbs in the Irish language. Adverbial expressions are formed by prefixing 50 to adjectives; as, mair, good; 50 mair, well; these are compared in the same way as the adjectives themselves. Adverbial expressions are also formed by the combination of prepositions and nouns, or pronouns; as, an 5cil, backwards, compounded of an, upon; and cil, the back.

# The following particles are only used in composition:—

# A.—Negative Particles.

$\alpha \dot{m} e.g.$	with beóin, will.	aim beoin, unwillingness.
αn	,, τράτ, time.	αητράτ, improper time.
00	" beurac, well-beha	aved. σοιδευγαέ, ill-behaved.
าวา์	" cneiσeam, belief	
onoċ	" blar, taste.	ορος blar, a bad taste.
éα* or éi	" cóin, righteousnes	
eαγ	" capa, a friend.	earzcapa, an enemy.
ฑ์เ ่	,, ciall, sense.	micιαll, folly.
ทεαή	" claon, partial.	neαmċlαon, impartial.

#### B.—Intensitive Particles.

α το e.	g. wit	h molατο, praise.	αστησίασ, excessive praise.
αn	"	món, great.	anmón, very great.
biċ	22	beo, living.	bitbeo, everliving, eternal.
00	22	bnón, grief.	oobnon, great grief.
12	22	zné, a kind.	10 tnéiteαt, of many kinds, manifold.
1m	11	ľάn, full.	10mlán, very full.
SSO	,, .	zlón, noise.	ολλέλορ, great talk, bombast.
up	"	eαγburo, want.	unpearbuno, great want, poverty.

# C.—Particles of various other meanings.

αιγ, or eir, e.g. with ioc, a payment.
ατ ,, blar, a savour.
cóm, equal, as thom, weight.
σεαξ, or σειξ, good, as blap, taste.
in, fit, as σέαπτα, done.
γο, easy, as σέαπτα, done.

αιγιος, a repayment. ατίδιαγ, an after savour. cómτροm, equal weight. σεατίδιαγ, a good taste. iπσέαπτα, fit to be done. γοισέαπτα, easy to be done.

Let the learner bear in mind the rule cool to cool, 7c. Thus, am is aim in aimbeoin; no is not in notheurac; im is 10m in 10mlán, &c. Several of these particles have also a separate existence as substantives or adjectives.

The particles used with verbs have been mentioned pre-

viously in § 35.

# § 53.—Prepositions.

There are many simple prepositions, such as  $\alpha \xi$ ,  $\alpha t$ ;  $\alpha \eta \eta$ , upon;  $\alpha nn$ , in, &c.; and these again, with nouns, form compound prepositions; as,  $\alpha \xi \alpha i \delta$ , the face;  $\alpha n \alpha \xi \alpha i \delta$ , in the face, against, &c.

<sup>\*</sup>  $\alpha$  generally eclipses the initial mutable of the noun with which it is compounded; as,  $\alpha$  corpocate, cruelty. This is a peculiar case of eclipsis; the negative  $\alpha$  was originally  $\alpha$ , then  $\alpha$ . In the latter shape it appears before vowels, as  $\alpha$  conca $\alpha$ , disunited,  $\alpha$  corport, disorder. This will help to understand the  $\alpha$  of the common eclipsis, which is likewise intact before vowels.

The following prepositions generally aspirate the initial mutable of the nouns they govern:—

άιρ, upon.
το, of.
το, to.
τα, ταοι, under.
τεατο, throughout.

101η, between. map, like to. o, ua, from. τρέ, through.

Cnn, in, and 1αp, after, eclipse the initial mutable. The

original form of 1αρ was 1αρη, vid. § 35.

Le, with or through, and o, from, in the modern language prefix h to nouns beginning with a vowel; as, μιξηε mé γιη le heagla, I did that through fear.

# § 54.—Conjunctions.

Conjunctions are simple and compound: simple, as 50, that; agur, and; the compound are those compounded of different parts of speech, forming a sort of conjunctional phrase, 50 bruż, because; unme run, therefore.

For the influence of certain conjunctions upon the initials

of the words that follow them, vid. § 35.

# § 55.—Interjections.

The following are a few of the more usual interjections:-

α! 0! αγ τριιας ! woe! τοριαορ! alas! mainz! woe to! monuap! alas! ceinmeap! O happy. éirc! hush!

C and o, it must be observed, aspirate the initial mutable of the noun to which they are prefixed.

## PART III.

#### SYNTAX.

#### CHAPTER I.

# § 56.—The Article.

The Irish language has no indefinite article corresponding to the English a or an; but this is expressed either by the absence of the definite article an, or sometimes in the mode mentioned in § 61.

The definite article on has the following syntactical peculiarities.

When one noun governs another in the genitive, the article is used before the genitive case, and not with the governing noun, as in English the sense would require; as, mac an ourne, the son of man; but if a possessive pronoun be used with the governed noun, or if the governed noun be such a proper noun as would not take the article, the article is omitted; as, obain a lame, the work of his hand; Mac Oé, the Son of God.

But if the noun governed should merely stand in the place of an adjective, then the governing noun, if it has no adjective, may take the article; as, no morphoto choic, the mountain dogs; on peop coppoin, the reaper; lit., the man of a hook.

The article is used in Irish in some instances where in English it would be omitted; viz.—(a) Before a noun which would take, at the same time, a demonstrative pronoun; (b) Before a noun preceded by its adjective and the assertive present 1γ; (c) Before the names of certain places; as, μίξ na héπρεαπη, &c.; (d) Abstract nouns also take the article, or nouns used as abstracts; as, απ τ-οτριγ, hunger; τάπηξ απ ρεαστό αιη απ γαοξάλ, sin entered the world.—Rom. v., 12; το τρεαγχαιρ απ bάγ, death laid low.

# § 57.—The Noun.

The same concords of Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, and Verb, which occur in other languages, occur also in Irish.

One noun governs another in the genitive, as in other languages, the two nouns frequently forming a compound expression; as, rean connain, a man of a hook, i.e., a reaper.

"When, in the absence of the article, the latter of two substantives in the genitive case is the proper name of a man, woman, or place, its initial is aspirated; as, ό αιπριρ βάσριαις, from the time of St. Patrick."—O'Donovan.

#### CHAPTER II.

#### THE ADJECTIVE.

# § 58.—Adjectives in general.

The aspiration of adjectives, when joined to nouns, has been

treated of in § 21.

Adjectives are generally placed after the nouns to which they belong, except (a) in the case of emphasis; or (b) in the case of some monosyllabic adjectives; as, veaz, good; rean, old, &c.; and (c) of numerals, vid. § 59; as, an Thomas Nuav, the New Testament; veapz laraip, red flame. The adjective also precedes the noun when joined to the assertive present if; as, if ruap an láé, it is a cold day.

When the adjective precedes the noun it is frequently regarded as forming with it a compound word, and consequently suffers the same initial changes after the article or preposition as if it were a noun, and aspirates the initial letter of its noun if a mutable consonant; as, an z-61z reap, the young man;

an z-rean bean, the old woman.

When the adjective is the predicate of a sentence, and the noun is the subject, the adjective is not inflected and suffers no initial changes; as, τά αn bean geanamul, the woman is beautiful; τη παιτίαν, they are good; το ριξηε mé αn ηξίαη ξευη, I sharpened the knife, not το ριξηε mé αn ηξίαη ξευη, which would be I made the sharp knife.

"When an adjective, beginning with a lingual, is preceded by a noun terminating with a lingual, the initial of the adjective retains its primary sound in all cases of the singular; as, an mo ξualann σeir, on my right shoulder; an a coir σeir,

on his right foot."—O'Donovan.

"When an adjective is used to describe the quality of two nouns, it agrees with the one next to it; as, reap agup bean mait, a good man and woman; bean 7 peap mait."—O'Donovan.

Adjectives which signify profit, nearness to, fitness, and their opposites, take after them the dative case with 50; as, 17 old 50m, it is bad for me; 17 mat 50m, it is good for me.

Adjectives which signify fulness, and those which signify part of any thing, take  $\infty$ , of, with the article before the noun in the dative; as, rear  $\infty$   $\infty$   $\infty$  on  $\infty$ , one of the men; tan  $\infty$  of  $\infty$ , full of water.

Adjectives which signify likeness, or an emotion of the mind, take te with the dative case; as, ir cormuit an rear

le pigeavoip, the man is like a weaver.

The comparative degree takes ná, or no, than, before the following noun: as, αγ mó βόι nά βεασαρ, Paul is greater than Peter.

"The superlative degree does not require a genitive case plural after it, as in Latin, for the genitive case in Irish, as in English, always denotes possession, and nothing more, and therefore could not be applied, like the genitive case plural in Latin, after nouns partitive, or the superlative degree; but it generally takes after it the preposition oo, or, more correctly, oe."—O'Donovan.

#### § 59.—Numerals.

Numeral adjectives precede their substantives; as, αοη γεαρ, one man; but when the number consists of a unit and decimal, the noun is placed between the unit and the decimal; as, τρί cloca σέας, thirteen stones; αοη γεαρ αρ γιότο, twenty-one men.

The cardinals σά, two; τιċe, twenty; and all the multiples of ten (as, σειὰ αρ τιὰιο, thirty; ceuσ, a hundred) take the noun in the singular number; as, ceuσ τεαρ, a hundred men.

<sup>\*</sup> Anciently vongib, vid. § 8.

## CHAPTER III.

#### THE PRONOUN.

#### § 60.—Personal Pronouns.

Personal Pronouns, as in other languages, agree with their antecedents in number, gender, and person.

If a sentence be the antecedent, the pronoun will be the third person singular masculine; but if a noun of multitude be the antecedent, the pronoun will be the third person plural.

If two or more persons or things be mentioned, the pronoun will agree with the first person rather than the second, and with the second rather than the third—δυαιδ γέ τύγα αξυγ miγe, αξυγ δί γιηη τίη, he struck you and me, and we were sick.

The personal pronouns, when compounded with prepositions, as given in § 27, are used with the substantive verb bí, and with other verbs to form certain idiomatic expressions. We

subjoin a few examples.

Čζαm, means literally, with me; but, when used with bi, serves in place of the verb to have; as, τά αζαm leαβαμ, I have a book; τά αζασ, you have (sing.); τά αζε, he has; beið γιασ αζασ, you shall have them; τα γιογ σ'ιπτιπ αζαμηα, I know your intention; παὰ βριπλ οςμαγ ομτ? are you not hungry? cá hamm ατά ομτ? what is your name? πιλ πεαμταζαμ αιμ, I cannot help it; απ βριπλ αση πιὸ μαιτ? do you want any thing?

# § 61.—Possessive Pronouns.

The possessive pronouns always precede their nouns; as, mo cecum, my head.

On the position of the emphatic increase when used with

possessives, see § 28.

The possessive pronouns, when either compounded with, or preceded by, the preposition αnn, in, expressed or understood, are used with the substantive verb bi, to denote an office or state of being; as, τά γέ 'nα γαζαρτ, he is a priest, literally, he is in his priest's state.

# § 62.—Relative and Interrogative Pronouns.

The Relative Pronoun  $\alpha$ , whether expressed or understood, aspirates the initial mutables of verbs, except when a preposition governing the relative precedes it, and the relative is not the nominative to the verb; in such a case it *eclipses* instead of *aspirating*. The preposition may sometimes be understood.

On the reason for the eclipsis, see § 29.

The relative always precedes the verb, and, being indeclinable, the context must decide whether it is the agent or the object; as, an peap a buadem, the man whom I strike; an peap a buadear me, the man who strikes me.

"The relative is often omitted when it is either preceded or followed by a vowel or an aspirated consonant; as, an 310Ua tus an seappán len, the boy that brought the horse with him."

-Neilson.

The Interrogative Pronouns always precede the verb with which they are connected; as, 50 of map tá tu? how do you do? If the interrogative should be under the government of a preposition, it is still placed first; and the preposition follows with a personal pronoun expressed, unless the interrogative should be connected directly with a noun; as, cia leight bruil? with whom is he?

# § 63.—Demonstrative and Indefinite Pronouns.

The Demonstrative Pronouns immediately follow the nouns or adjectives with which they may be connected; as, an bean pin, that woman.

There is one exception to the foregoing:—viz. where the assertive present ip is understood; as, po an peap, this is the man.

"The pronouns cpeud, 5006, c1α, &c., are commonly used without interrogation, as demonstratives; as, τά τιση αξαμ 50 σε α σέαργά, I know what you would say."—Neilson.

Unic, when placed before a noun, signifies every, and takes the noun in the singular; but when placed after a noun, it has the meaning of all, and the noun is then put in the plural; as, unice peap, every man; pip unice, all men.

# CHAPTER IV.

#### § 64.—The Verb.

The Verb agrees with its nominative in number and person. Two or more singular nouns joined by a conjunction will take the verb in the singular number; as, τάπτις πιγε αξυγτυγα, I and you came.

If the nominative be a noun of multitude the verb will be

in the plural.

The nominative generally follows the verb (part of the sentence may intervene); as, outdoope an reap, the man said.

Relative and interrogative pronouns, as before mentioned,

precede the verb.

"When the assertive verb 17, or the particles an, or nac, which always carry the force of 17, and never suffer it to be expressed, are used, the collocation is as follows:—the verb comes first, next the attribute, or predicate, and then the subject; as, 17 peap mé, I am a man; 17 mai ato, they are good. But if the article be expressed before the predicate, then the attribute comes next after the verb; as, 17 mé an

rean, I am the man."-O'Donovan.

The verb bi (with the exception of the assertive present form 17) always employs a preposition, such as α, 1, or απη, in, as mentioned in § 61, in asserting the existence of any subject; as, τά γὲ 'n-α ṭeaq, he is a man. But the assertive present 17 is always used in this sense without a preposition; as, 17 γeaq mé, I am a man. O'Donovan (p. 379) remarks:—
"The two modes of construction represent the idea to the mind in a quite different manner. Thus, τά mé αm' ṭeaq, and 17 γeaq mé, though both mean I am a man, have a different signification; for τά mé αm' ṭeaq, is I am in my man; i.e. I am a man, as distinguished from some other stage, such as childhood, or boyhood; while 17 γeaq mé indicates that I am a man, as distinguished from a woman, or a coward."

The pronoun is not used with the synthetic form.—Vid. § 33. When the noun precedes the infinitive, it is put in the accusative; when it follows, it is governed in the genitive.

The present participle, with the verb bi, expresses the continuance of the action; as, τά mé ας θείξεατο mo leαθαιρ, I am reading my book.

Transitive verbs take their objects in the accusative case. Verbs of advantage and disadvantage take the object of the

benefit or injury in the dative case with vo, or similar prepositions.

Verbs of comparing and taking away also govern the dative case of the object of comparison or deprivation, with the pre-

position ua, or such like.

One verb governs another in the infinitive mood, as in other languages. "When the governed verb is one expressing motion or gesture, which does not govern an accusative, the sign to is never prefixed; as, to bank for the total me to go to Cork."—O'Donovan. In some parts of Ireland this would be expressed, to bank for the total go Copcais.

#### CHAPTER V.

#### PARTICLES.

# § 65.—Adverbs.

Monosyllabic adverbs are placed before the words to which

they belong; as, nó món, very great.

"Compound adverbs, particularly those formed from adjectives, are placed after the nominatives to the verbs which they qualify, but never placed between the auxiliary and the verb as in English; as, σ'eiριξ γέ ξο moċ, he rose early; τά γέ σέαπτα ξο ceaρτ, it is done properly; not τά γέ ξο ceaρτ σέαπτα."—O'Donovan.

Adverbs signifying proximity take the dative case gener-

ally with oo; as, tá ré angáp oom, he is near me.

The following adverbs also take the dative case:—a bror, on this side; a braw, afar off; amai, out; amuni, without; tall, beyond; anall, on this side; arceae, within; as, ran a bror azumn, stay on this side with us.

# § 66.—Prepositions.

The prepositions in general govern the dative case; as,

τάιπις γέ 50 hClbainn, he came to Scotland.

zan, without, and 101p, between, sometimes govern the accusative; as, zan γόλάς, without comfort; 101p an reap azur a bean, between the man and his wife.

The following prepositions, being in reality nouns, govern

the genitive case:—

ċum, to. σέιγ, after. γεασ, throughout. nonntuide, unto. péip, according to. Timéioll, about.

All compound prepositions for the same reason take the genitive; as, α n-αξαιό mo τοιle, against my will.

On initial changes caused by certain prepositions see § 53.

## § 67.—Conjunctions and Interjections.

There is no peculiarity in the syntax of the conjunctions. On initial changes caused by certain of them see § 35.

The interjection maips, woe, being in reality a noun, is always followed by the preposition oo, with the dative; as, maips oute, woe to thee!

#### THE END.

# A GRAMMAR

OF THE

# MODERN IRISH LANGUAGE,

DESIGNED FOR THE USE OF

THE CLASSES IN THE UNIVERSITY OF DUBLIN.

BY

# CHARLES HENRY HAMILTON, WRIGHT, M.A.,

OF TRINITY COLLEGE, DUBLIN;

EDITOR OF "THE BOOK OF GENESIS IN HEBREW, WITH A CRITICALLY REVISED TEXT,
VARIOUS READINGS, AND GRAMMATICAL AND CRITICAL NOTES," &c.;

ASST. CURATE OF MIDDLETON TYAS, YORKSHIRE.

Second Edition-Revised and Enlarged.



# WILLIAMS AND NORGATE,

14, HENRIETTA-STREET, COVENT GARDEN, LONDON;  $_{\Lambda \rm ND}$ 

20, SOUTH FREDERICK-STREET, EDINBURGH.

DUBLIN: HODGES SMITH, AND CO.

1860.





# WORKS

RECENTLY PUBLISHED BY

# WILLIAMS AND NORGATE.

CENESIS, THE BOOK OF, in Hebrew, with a critically revised Text, various readings, and grammatical and critical Notes, &c. By the Rev. C. H. H. Wright, M.A., Trin. Coll. Dublin. 8vo. Cloth bds. 10s. 6d.

POLYGLOTT JONAH. The Book of Jonah in four Semitic Versions, viz. Chaldee, Syriac, Æthiopic, and Arabic. With corresponding Glossaries by W. Wright, Professor of Arabic in the University of Dublin. 8vo. Cloth. 7s. 6d.

WRIGHT (W.) GRAMMAR OF THE ARABIC LANGUAGE, founded on the German work of Caspari, and edited, with numerous additions and corrections, by W. Wright, Professor of Arabic in the University of Dublin. Vol. I. 8vo. Cloth bds. 7s. 6d.

COWPER (Rev. B. Harris). A SYRIAC GRAMMAR, founded on that of Dr. Hoffman, with additions. 8vo. Cloth. 7s. 6d.

THE PROPER NAMES OF THE OLD TESTAMENT arranged Alphabetically from the original Text, with Historical and Geographical Illustrations, for the use of Hebrew Students and Teachers, with an Appendix of the Hebrew and Aramaic Names in the New Testament. 8vo. Cloth. 7s. 6d.

COOLEY (W. D.) THE ELEMENTS OF GEOMETRY simplified and explained, with Practical Geometry and Supplement. By W. D. Cooley, A.B. 12mo. Cloth.

RAEDERSDORFF. A PRACTICAL INTRODUCTION TO DANISH or NORWEGIAN: a Collection of useful Phrases and Sentences, arranged in grammatical order, with reference to Rask's Danish Grammar, and Extracts from Danish and Norwegian historians, Allen. Munch, &c., with explanatory Notes and a Vocabulary at the foot of the page. 12mo. Cloth.

BECKER'S GERMAN GRAMMAR. A Grammar of the German Language. By Dr. K. F. Becker. Third Edition, carefully revised and adapted to the use of the English Student. By Dr. J. W. Fraedersdorff, of the Taylor Institution, Oxford. 12mo. Cloth. 5s.

#### In the Press.

CORMAC'S AND O'DAVOREN'S OLD IRISH GLOSSARIES, edited from MSS. in the Libraries of Trinity College, Dublin, and the British Museum, by W. S.

## WILLIAMS AND NORGATE,

14, HENRIETTA-STREET, COVENT GARDEN, LONDON; AND 20, STH. FREDERICK-STREET, EDINBURGH.

